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A gender-based statistical report

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WOMEN IN CANADA

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A gender-based statistical report

Target Groups Project

Published by authority of the Minister responsible for Statistics Canada

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Highlights

- Currently, slightly more than half of all people living in Canada are women or female children. In 1999, there were a total of 15.4 million females in Canada, representing 50.4% of the overall Canadian population that year.

- Women constitute a particularly large segment of the senior population in Canada. In 1999, women made up 57% of all Canadians aged 65 and over, whereas they represented 51% of those aged 55-64 and 50% or less of those in all other age ranges. Women account for even larger shares of the older segments of the senior population. That year, women made up 70% of all persons aged 85 and over and 60% of those aged 75-84.

- Women make up more than half the population in every province except Alberta. Women also make up less than half the population in each of the territories.

- Close to one in five women living in Canada is an immigrant. In 1996, 2.6 million Canadian females, 18% of the total, were immigrants. At the same time, 1.6 million women, 11% of the total female population, identified themselves as being members of a visible minority. Another 410,000 women, 3% of the total female population, reported they were Aboriginal people, that is, they were either North American Indian, Métis, or Inuit.

- The vast majority of women in Canada live with members of their family. In 1996, 84% of women aged 15 and over, about the same figure as for men, were living with either their immediate or extended family. That year, exactly half of all women aged 15 and over were living with their husband, while 8% were living in a common-law relationship, another 8% were lone parents, 14% were children still living at home with their parents, and 4% were living with members of their extended family, such as the family of a daughter or son.

- There has been a particularly sharp increase in the number of families headed by female lone parents. In 1996, there were 945,000 female-headed lone-parent families in Canada, representing 19% of all families with children; the latter figure is almost double that in 1971, when 10% of families with children were headed by female lone parents. Women also continue to make up the large majority of lone parents. In 1996, 83% of all one-parent families were headed by women, a figure that has remained relatively constant since the mid-1970s.

- While the large majority of Canadian women live with their family, a growing proportion are living alone. In 1996, almost one and a half million women, 13% of the total female population aged 15 and over, were living alone, up from 7% in 1971. Not surprisingly, senior women are most likely to live alone. In 1996, 38% of all women aged 65 and over were living on their own, compared with just 12% of women aged 45-64, 7% of those aged 25-44, and 3% of 15- to 24-year-olds.

- One of the most dramatic trends in family life has been the decline in the birth rate among Canadian women. In 1997, there were just 44 births for every 1,000 woman in Canada aged 15-49, less than half the figure in 1959, when there were 116 births per 1,000 women in this age range. Still, about one in five Canadian families have pre-school aged children. In 1996, 21% of all families had at least one child under the age of six.

- The large majority of women in all age ranges consider themselves to be in good health; many women, though, have chronic health conditions. In 1996-97, 62% of females aged 12 and over reported suffering from some form of chronic health condition as diagnosed by a health-care professional.

- Females in Canada have considerably longer life expectancies than their male counterparts. A girl born in Canada in 1997 could expect to live for more than 81 years, compared with 76 years for boys. The gap between the life expectancy of women and men, however, has narrowed in recent years. Between 1981 and 1997, life expectancy at birth rose by 2.3 years for women, compared with an increase of 3.9 years among men.

- Heart disease and cancer are the primary killers among Canadian women. In 1997, over 27,000 women died as a result of heart disease, while almost the same number died of cancer. Together, heart disease and cancer were responsible for over half of all deaths among women (52%). The death rate from heart disease among women, however, has declined sharply in the past two decades, whereas, there has been almost no change in the cancer death rate in this period.

- A substantial proportion of women use some form of medication. In 1996-97, roughly half of all females (51%) aged 12 and over reported taking some kind of prescription or non-prescription medication in the last two days preceding the survey. In fact, women were more likely than their male counterparts to use medication: 51% versus 33%. Pain killers are the most common type of medication used by women. That year, 70% used painkillers in the month preceding the survey.

- Canadian women have made tremendous strides in terms of their educational attainment in the past several decades. In 1996, 12% of all women aged 15 and over had a university degree, double the figure in 1986 (6%) and four times that in 1971 (3%). Women, however, are still somewhat less likely than men to have a university degree: 12% versus 14%.

- The overall difference in the proportions of women and men with a university degree is likely to close even further in the future, since women currently make up the majority of full-time students in Canadian universities. In the 1997-98 academic year, 55% of all full-time university students were female, up from 52% in 1992-93 and 37% in 1972-73. Women's share of full-time university enrolment, however, declines the higher the level of study. In 1997-98, women made up 56% of all students in Bachelor's and first professional degree programs, compared with 51% of those in Master's programs and just 43% of those working toward their doctorate.

- Women also make up the majority of full-time students in most university departments. Women, however, continue to account for a minority of full-time enrolment in mathematics and science faculties. In 1997-98, only 29% of all university students in mathematics and physical sciences, and just 22% of those in engineering and applied sciences were women.

- Women and men both averaged a total of 7.2 hours per day on paid and unpaid work in 1998. There is, however, a distinct division of labour between the sexes. For example, women spent an average of 2.8 hours daily on paid work and 4.4 hours on unpaid work, whereas the situation for men was the reverse; they spent 4.5 hours on paid work and 2.7 hours on unpaid work.

- In 1999, 55% of all women aged 15 and over had jobs, up from 42% in 1976. In contrast, the proportion of men who were employed fell during this period from 73% to 67%. As a result, women accounted for 46% of the employed workforce in 1999, up from 37% in 1976.

- There has been particularly sharp growth in the employment rate of women with children, especially those with pre-school aged children, in the past two decades. Indeed, by 1999, 61% of women with children less than age 3 were employed, more than double the figure in 1976. Similarly, 66% of women whose youngest child was aged 3-5 worked for pay or profit in 1999, up from 37% in 1976.

- Most employed Canadian women work at one full-time permanent paid job. The number working in non-standard arrangements, including part-time workers, temporary employees, self-employed persons without paid help, and multiple job holders, though, has grown over the past decade. In 1999, 41% of employed women aged 15-64 had a non-standard employment arrangement, compared with 35% in 1989.

- Part-time employment is the most common form of non-standard work arrangement for women. In 1999, 28% of all employed women worked less than 30 hours per week, compared with just 10% of employed men.

- The majority of employed women continue to work in occupations in which women have traditionally been concentrated. In 1999, 70% of all employed women were working in teaching, nursing and related health occupations, clerical or other administrative positions, and sales and service occupations. This compared with just 29% of employed men. The proportion of women employed in traditionally female-dominated occupations, however, has slowly declined since 1987 when 74% were in these types of jobs.

- Women, though, have increased their representation in several professional fields in recent years. For example, in 1999, women made up 49% of business and financial professionals, up from 41% in 1987. At the same time, women made up almost half (47%) of all doctors and dentists in 1999, up from 44% in 1987. Similarly, 58% of professionals employed in social sciences or religion in 1999 were women, compared with 48% in 1987.

- Women have also increased their share of total employment in managerial positions. In 1999, 35% of all those employed in managerial positions were women, up from 29% in 1987. Among managers, however, women tend to be better represented among lower-level managers as opposed to those at more senior levels. That year, women made up only 27% of senior managers, compared with 36% of managers at other levels.

- In contrast, women continue to remain very much a minority among professionals employed in the natural sciences, engineering, and mathematics. In 1999, just 20% of professionals in these occupations were women, a figure which has changed little since 1987 (17%).

- Unemployment rates are currently slightly lower among women than men. In 1999, 522,000 women, 7.3% of all female labour force participants, were unemployed, compared with 7.8% of male labour force participants. In fact, the unemployment rate has been lower among women than men throughout the 1990s, whereas the reverse was the case for much of the period from 1976 to 1989.

- Young women are considerably more likely than other women to be unemployed. In 1999, 12.6% of female labour force participants aged 15-24 were unemployed, compared with just 6.6% of those aged 25-44 and 5.4% of those aged 45-64. These young women, however, were still considerably less likely than their male counterparts to be unemployed: 12.6% versus 15.3%.

- While the majority of women currently participate in the labour force, a substantial proportion do not. In 1999, 41% of women aged 15 and over were neither employed, nor looking for employment, compared with 27% of men.

- Even when employed, women are still largely responsible for looking after their homes and families. In 1998, women employed full-time with a spouse and at least one child under age 19 at home spent 4.9 hours per day on unpaid work activities, an hour and a half more per day than their male counterparts.

- Women generally have lower incomes than men. In 1997, the average annual pre-tax income of women aged 15 and over from all sources was $19,800, just 62% the figure for men. The average incomes of women, however, have risen somewhat faster than those of men in recent years. In fact, the average income of women in 1997 was 14% higher than the figure in 1993, once the effects of inflation have been factored out. In contrast, the real average income of men rose only 6% in the same period.

- The income situation of women varies greatly depending on their family status. Most notably, lone-parent families headed by women have, by far, the lowest incomes of all family types. In 1997, families headed by female lone parents under age 65 had an average income of $25,400, only 39% as much as non-elderly two-spouse families with children, and just 65% that of lone-parent families headed by men.

- Women make up a disproportionate share of the population in Canada with low incomes. In 1997, 2.8 million women, 19% of the total female population, were living in low-income situations, compared with 16% of the male population. That year, females accounted for 54% of all Canadians classified as having low incomes.

- The family status of adult women has a profound effect on their probability of being in a low-income situation. This is particularly true of senior women. In 1997, almost half of unattached senior women (49%) had low incomes, compared with just 5% of senior women living with their family. At the same time, 56% of all families headed by lone-parent mothers had incomes which fell below the Low Income Cut-offs. In comparison, just 12% of non-elderly two-parent families with children, and 24% of male lone-parent families, had low incomes that year.

- As a result of these trends, lone-parent families headed by women are home to a disproportionate share of all children living in low-income situations. In 1997, 40% of

all children in a low-income family were living with a single female parent, whereas these families accounted for only 13% of all children under age 18 that year.

- Women receive a larger portion of their total income than men from government transfer payments. In 1997, 18% of the total income of women came from transfer payments, almost double the figure of men, who received only about 10% of their total income from these sources.

- Women also receive a relatively large share of their income from other sources, including alimony and child support payments from a former spouse. As well, these sources of income account for a significant portion of the income of those families, especially female-headed lone-parent families, that do receive these payments.

- The average earnings of employed women are still substantially lower than those of men. In 1997, employed women had average earnings of just over $21,000, a figure that was only 64% of that of all men with jobs.

- Even when employed on a full-time, full-year basis the earnings of women remain well below those of their male counterparts. In 1997, women working full-time, full-year had average earnings of just under $31,000, or 73% what men employed full-time, full-year made that year. The latter figure, though, is up from 68% in 1990 and around 64% in the early 1980s.

- Traditionally, women's involvement in the criminal justice system has been more as victims of crime rather than as perpetrators. In 1998, women were charged with committing 19% of all crimes reported to the police in Canada, whereas they represented 49% of all victims of violent crime reported to a sample of police forces that year.

- In 1998, 78% of all female victims were victimized by someone they knew, while 22% were victimized by a stranger. Men, on the other hand, were almost as likely to be victimized by a stranger (46%) as by someone they knew (54%).

- In 1998, there were a total of 555 victims of homicide in Canada, of whom 32% were female and 68% were male. As with other types of victimization, women are more likely to be murdered by someone they knew than by a stranger. In fact, women are far more likely to be murdered by someone with whom they have a family relationship. In 1998, 58% of female homicide victims, versus 18% of male homicide victims, were killed by a family member. Indeed, 32% of women who were murdered in 1998 were murdered by a spouse, whereas, this was the case for only 3% of men murdered that year.

- Women are much less likely than men to be involved in criminal activity. In 1998, adult women aged 18 and over made up only 18% of all adults charged with a criminal offence, while young women aged 12-17 accounted for 23% of all youths charged.

- Very few women are accused of homicide. In 1998, there were a total of 64 women suspected of this crime, representing 12% of the total accused.

- Women make up a very small proportion of all persons admitted to prison in Canada. In 1997-98, only 9% of adults admitted to provincial/territorial prisons were women, while the figure for federal penitentiaries was even lower, with women representing 5% of sentenced admissions to these institutions that year.

Introduction

The 20th century was a period of remarkable change in the role of women in Canadian society. For much of the early part of the century, women were most frequently seen in the role of nurturer with very few other options. As the decades passed, however, women become increasingly involved in the full range of social and economic aspects of life in Canada. Most notably, women have become an integral part of the labour force, accounting for almost half of all people working for pay. As we enter the new century, though, there is still work to be done as substantial differences persist between women and men on most key variables. Indeed, the pace of improvement on many has slowed and, in some instances, has reversed.

This, the fourth edition of *Women in Canada*, documents and traces many of these changes by presenting relevant statistical series from Statistics Canada and other sources. This report is intended to paint a comprehensive portrait of the female population. It includes many indicators describing women's income, housing, health, education, employment, family life, and criminal victimization. Most of these indicators are compared with those of men to provide some measure of women's progress, or lack of progress, in achieving greater equality in these areas.

Just as the experiences of women are different from those of men in many spheres of Canadian life, certain groups of women are unique within the female population. For these reasons, separate chapters have been included to reflect the experiences of immigrant women, visible minority women, Aboriginal women, and senior women.

This report is primarily national in scope and most of the statistics were assembled from published sources; however, a number of series include previously unpublished data from sources such as the Census of Canada, the Labour Force Survey, the National Population Health Survey, the General Social Survey, and the Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics. In addition, while efforts have been made to describe the situation of women in Canada as comprehensively as possible, this report is not exhaustive, and inevitably, certain data gaps exist. Those seeking more information or having questions about data comparability and data quality should consult the source publications directly or contact the Target Groups Project at Statistics Canada.

Questions or comments pertaining to this report should be addressed to Colin Lindsay, Target Groups Project, Housing, Family and Social Statistics Division, Statistics Canada, 7th Floor, Jean Talon Building, Ottawa, Ontario, K1A 0T6 or by calling (613) 951-2603, faxing (613) 951-0387, or by e-mail at lindcol@statcan.ca.

CHAPTER 1

The Female Population

by Colin Lindsay

Women in the majority

Currently, slightly more than half of all people living in Canada are women or female children. In 1999,[1] there was a total of 15.4 million females in Canada, representing 50.4% of the overall Canadian population that year. (Table 1.1)

The fact that females outnumber males is a relatively new phenomenon. Indeed, as recently as the early 1970s women were in the minority in Canada. In 1971, for example, 49.8% of the Canadian population were either women or female children, while the figure was as low as 48.2% in 1931. The share of the population accounted for by women, though, reached 50% in 1976 and has risen, albeit slowly, to the current figure of 50.4%. This has occurred largely because mortality gains among women have been greater than those among men, with the result that women live considerably longer, on average, than men.[2]

The share of the population accounted for by women, however, is not expected to change dramatically over the course of the next few decades. Statistics Canada has projected[3] that, in 2026, women will make up 50.6% of the total population, just slightly over the current figure.

Age distribution

Women born during the baby boom years from the mid-1940s to the mid-1960s currently make up the largest group of women in Canada. In fact, in 1999, almost one out of three Canadian women was between the ages of 35 and 54; that year, 17% were aged 35-44, the single largest ten-year female age cohort, while women 45-54 made up another 14%. (Table 1.2)

At the same time, a substantial proportion of the female population, 32% in 1999, was under the age of 25, while 23% was aged 55 and over. That year, 9% of all women were aged 55-64 and 14% were seniors aged 65 and over.

Senior women,[4] however, constitute the fastest growing segment of the female population. In 1999, the 2.2 million senior women in Canada made up 14% of all women, up from 11% in 1981 and just 5% in 1921. (See Chapter 12, Table 12.1)

The share of the population accounted for by senior women is also expected to continue growing during the next several decades. Statistics Canada has projected[3] that by the year 2011, when women born during the baby boom begin turning 65, 16% of all women will be aged 65 and over and that by 2026, 23% of women will be seniors.

As well, women constitute a particularly large segment of the senior population in Canada. In 1999, women made up 57% of all Canadians aged 65 and over, whereas they represented 51% of those aged 55-64 and 50% or less of those in all other age ranges.

Women account for even larger shares of the older segments of the senior population. In 1999, women made up 70% of all persons aged 85 and over and 60% of those aged 75-84, compared with 53% of people aged 65-74.

Women in the provinces and territories

Women make up more than half the population in every province except Alberta. In 1999, women represented 51% of all residents in Nova Scotia and close to 51% in the provinces of Prince Edward Island (50.8%), Ontario (50.7%), and Quebec (50.7%). Women also made up 50.4% of people in Newfoundland, New Brunswick, and Manitoba and 50.3% of those in British Columbia and in Saskatchewan. In contrast, women made up only 49.4% of the population in Alberta. (Table 1.3)

The fact that women are in the minority in Alberta relates, in part, to differences in age. The Alberta population is relatively young and women generally make up smaller shares of younger age groups than of older ones. Indeed, seniors make up a much smaller share of the population in Alberta – just 10% in 1999 – than in any other province.[5]

Women also make up less than half the population in the territories. In 1999, about 48% of all people in each of the Yukon, Northwest Territories, and Nunavut were women. As with Alberta, this trend may be due, in part, to the relatively young populations in the territories. It also may reflect the fact that many people living in the territories, especially in the Yukon and Northwest Territories, are migrant workers, a group that is predominantly male.

Urban/rural distribution[6]

The large majority of both women and men in Canada live in urban areas. In 1996, 79% of all women lived in an area classified as urban. In fact, the majority of women, 59% in 1996, lived in a census metropolitan area (CMA), that is, an urban area with a population of at least 100,000, while 13% lived in an urban area with a population between 10,000 and 99,999 and 7% lived in other urban areas. (Table 1.4)

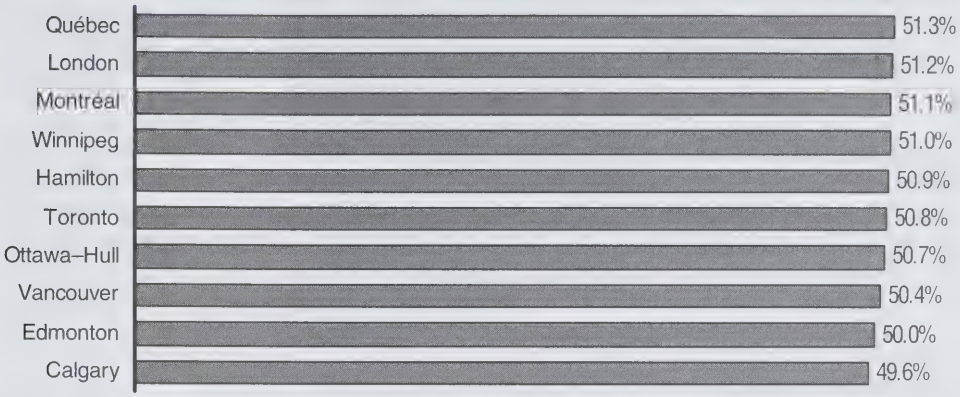
At the same time, just over one in five women lived in a rural area. In 1996, 21% of all females lived in an area considered to be rural, with the largest share of these, 19%, classified as living in a rural non-farm area. Only a small percentage of Canadian women – less than 3% that year – were rural farm dwellers.

Women represent a relatively large share of the population in urban areas, while they tend to be under-represented in rural communities. In 1996, women made up over 51% of all those living in urban areas, whereas they represented 49% of the rural non-farm population, and only 47% of that classified as rural farm.

Women also account for more than half the population in most of the 10 largest census metropolitan areas in Canada. In 1999, women made up 51% or more of residents of each of Québec City, London, Montréal, and Winnipeg and close to 51% in Hamilton, Ottawa–Hull, and Toronto. They also constituted 50.4% of those in Vancouver and exactly half the population in Edmonton. The exception to this pattern was Calgary, where women represented slightly less than half the population (49.6%). (Chart 1.1)

Chart 1.1

Women as a percentage of the population[1] of the 10 most populous census metropolitan areas, 1999



[1] *Adjusted for net census undercoverage.*
***Source**: Statistics Canada, Demography Division.*

Residential mobility

As with their male counterparts, the female population in Canada is very mobile. In the five years between 1991 and 1996, 43% of all women in Canada, the same figure as for men, made at least one residential move. (Table 1.5)

The majority of women who do move, however, only change residences within their community. Still, in the period between 1991 and 1996, 17% of all women in Canada moved from one community to another: 13% moved within the same province, while 3% moved from one province to another.

Immigrant women

Close to one in five women living in Canada is an immigrant.[7] In 1996, 2.6 million Canadian females, 18% of the total, were immigrants. The latter figure, though, is about the same as that for the male population, with 17% of whom were also immigrants.

Almost all immigrant women currently living in Canada have become Canadian citizens. Indeed, 82% of all immigrant women eligible to have taken out Canadian citizenship as of 1996 had done so. This, however, was slightly below the figure for immigrant men, 84% of whom had become Canadian citizens.[8]

Women in the visible minority community

About one in 10 women in Canada are members of a visible minority community.[9] In 1996, 1.6 million women, 11% of the total female population, identified themselves as being members of a visible minority. (Table 1.6)

The largest number of visible minority women are Chinese. In 1996, there were just over 440,000 Chinese women in Canada: together they made up over a quarter of the total female visible minority population. At the same time, there were 330,000 South Asian women and 301,000 Black women and over 100,000 each of Filipinas and Arab or West Asian women. There were also substantial numbers of Latin American (89,500), Southeast Asian (86,600), Japanese (36,200), and Korean (34,000) women.

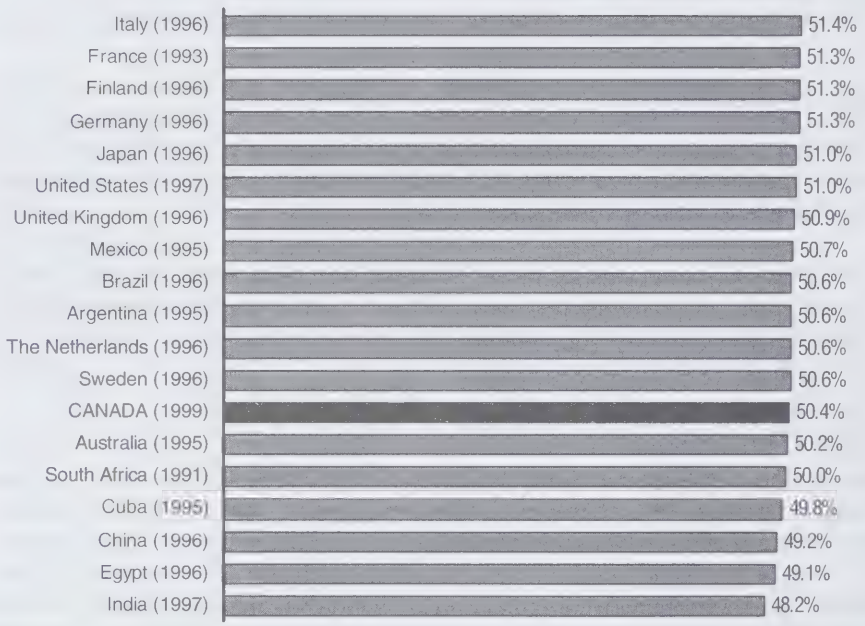
Women in Canada in an international context

While women make up the majority of Canadians, the share of the total Canadian population accounted for by females is actually relatively low compared with most other developed countries. In fact, the current Canadian figure is lower than that in Italy, Germany, Finland, France, the United States, Japan, the United Kingdom, Sweden and the Netherlands. The share of the Canadian population accounted for by women, however, is higher than it is in countries such as China and India where women constitute less than half the population. (Chart 1.2)

One reason why women in Canada account for a smaller proportion of the population than do their counterparts in other industrialized nations is that while the Canadian population is aging, Canada still has a relatively small senior population compared with these other countries. As mentioned above, women tend to make up a disproportionate share of the population in older age ranges.

Chart 1.2

Women as a percentage of the population in Canada and selected other nations



Sources: *Statistics Canada, Demography Division; and United Nations, 1997 Demographic Yearbook.*

Overall, the share of the total female population in Canada accounted for by members of the visible minority population (11%) is about the same as that of the male population. Women, however, account for quite different shares of the populations in the various sub-groups. In 1996, 58% of the Filipino population in Canada were female, as were 53% of the Japanese population and 52% of both the Black and Korean groups. In contrast, women were in the minority among South Asian and Arab/West Asian communities. Indeed, females made up only 45% of the latter group. (See Chapter 10, Table 10.1)

Aboriginal women

A substantial number of women in Canada identify with the Aboriginal population.[10] In 1996, just under 410,000 women, 3% of the total female population, reported they were North American Indian, Métis, or Inuit. As well, the share of the female population accounted for by those identifying with the Aboriginal population was about the same as that for men that year. Overall, women made up 51% of the total Aboriginal identity population. (Table 1.7)

The largest number of women identifying with the Aboriginal population are North American Indian. In 1996, just over 270,000 females, 66% of the total female Aboriginal identity population, were North American Indian, while 25% were Métis, 5% were Inuit, and 4% identified with either another Aboriginal group or more than one Aboriginal group.

Language characteristics of women

Almost all women can speak one or both of Canada's official languages. In 1996, 81% of Canadian women could carry on a conversation in either English or French only, while 17% were bilingual. (Table 1.8)

A small proportion of women, however, cannot speak either English or French. In 1996, 2% of women, almost double the share among men, could not speak either official language. This reflects, in part, the fact that older persons are much more likely than their younger counterparts not to be able to speak an official language, and women make up a substantially larger share of people in older age ranges.

An even greater proportion of women in Canada live in a household in which the primary language is not English or French. In 1996, almost one in 10 (9%) women spoke a language other than one of the official languages in their homes. This figure, however, was almost the same as that for men; indeed, there was almost no difference in the distribution of languages spoken at home by women and men. (Table 1.9)

Religious affiliation of women

The large majority of women report some kind of religious affiliation. In 1996, 87% of all women aged 15 and over reported they were affiliated with some religious group. That year, 45% were Roman Catholic and 33% were affiliated with a Protestant denomination, while 9% were either Jewish or were affiliated with an Eastern Orthodox, other Eastern or Asian religion, or other religion. (Table 1.10)

Women are generally more likely than men to report a religious affiliation. In 1996, 87% of women, versus 84% of men, said they were affiliated with some religion. In contrast, women were less likely than men, 13% compared with 16%, not to have any religious affiliation.

Women are also considerably more likely than their male counterparts to regularly attend religious functions. In 1996, 23% of women aged 15 and over attended church or other religious activity at least once a week, compared with only 16% of men. (Table 1.11)

Colin Lindsay is the manager of the Target Groups Project.

[1] *Except where indicated, the figures in this chapter for the period 1971 to 1999 are based on revised intercensal population estimates at July 1, adjusted for net census undercoverage and including non-permanent residents and returning Canadians. For more information on these concepts see* Revised Intercensal Population and Family Estimates, July 1, 1971-1991, *Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 91-537-XPB, 1994.*

[2] *For more information on the mortality rates and life expectancy of women, see Chapter 3.*

[3] *These projections assume medium growth in the population.*

[4] *For more detail on senior women see Chapter 12. See also* A Portrait of Seniors in Canada, *Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 89-519-XPE, 1999.*

[5] *Source: Statistics Canada, Demography Division.*

[6] *The data in this section have not been adjusted for net census undercoverage and, therefore, are not directly comparable with other data in this chapter.*

[7] *For more detail on immigrant women, see Chapter 9.*

[8] *Source: Statistics Canada, 1996 Census of Canada.*

[9] *For more detail on women in the visible minority community, see Chapter 10.*

[10] *For more detail on Aboriginal women, see Chapter 11.*

Table 1.1

Total population, 1921-1999, and projections to 2026

	Females	Males	Total	Females as a % of the population
		000s		
1921	4,258.3	4,529.6	8,787.9	48.4
1931	5,002.2	5,374.5	10,376.8	48.2
1941	5,606.1	5,900.5	11,506.7	48.7
1951	6,920.6	7,088.9	14,009.4	49.4
1956	7,928.9	8,151.9	16,080.8	49.3
1961	9,019.4	9,218.9	18,238.2	49.4
1966	9,960.5	10,054.3	20,014.9	49.8
1971[1]	10,935.3	11,026.8	21,962.1	49.8
1976[1]	11,726.0	11,723.8	23,449.8	50.0
1981[1]	12,468.8	12,351.6	24,820.4	50.2
1986[1]	13,149.1	12,951.5	26,100.6	50.4
1991[2]	14,136.4	13,894.4	28,030.9	50.4
1996[2]	14,980.1	14,691.8	29,671.9	50.4
1999[2]	15,387.9	15,103.4	30,491.3	50.4
Projections[3]				
2011	16,886.9	16,482.1	33,369.0	50.6
2016	17,419.6	17,009.2	34,428.8	50.6
2021	17,903.4	17,490.3	35,393.7	50.6
2026	18,312.4	17,892.8	36,205.3	50.6

[1] *Adjusted for net census undercoverage and non-permanent residents.*
[2] *Adjusted for net census undercoverage.*
[3] *Projections based on assumptions of medium population growth.*

Sources: *Statistics Canada, Catalogue nos. 91-213-XPB and 93-310-XPB, and Demography Division.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 1.2

Population, by age, 1999[1]

	Females		Males		Females as a % of the age group
	000s	%	000s	%	
People aged					
Under 5	891.1	5.8	938.8	6.2	48.7
5-14	1,990.8	12.9	2,097.4	13.9	48.7
15-24	2,011.0	13.1	2,110.6	14.0	48.8
25-34	2,200.6	14.3	2,251.2	14.9	49.4
35-44	2,624.9	17.1	2,645.4	17.5	49.8
45-54	2,110.9	13.7	2,099.7	13.9	50.1
55-64	1,385.1	9.0	1,343.8	8.9	50.8
65-74	1,135.7	7.4	994.7	6.6	53.3
75-84	762.0	5.0	503.1	3.3	60.2
85 and over	275.7	1.8	119.4	0.8	69.8
Total aged 65 and over	2,173.4	14.1	1,617.2	10.7	57.3
Total	**15,387.9**	**100.0**	**15,103.4**	**100.0**	**50.4**

[1] *Adjusted for net census undercoverage.*
Source: *Statistics Canada, Demography Division.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 1.3

Population, by province and territory, 1999[1]

	Women		Men		Women as a % of the provincial/ territorial population
	000s	%	000s	%	
Newfoundland	273.0	1.8	268.0	1.8	50.4
Prince Edward Island	70.1	0.4	67.9	0.4	50.8
Nova Scotia	478.9	3.1	460.9	3.1	51.0
New Brunswick	381.0	2.4	374.0	2.4	50.4
Quebec	3,720.9	24.2	3,624.5	24.0	50.7
Ontario	5,832.9	37.9	5,680.9	37.6	50.7
Manitoba	576.2	3.7	567.3	3.8	50.4
Saskatchewan	516.8	3.4	511.0	3.4	50.3
Alberta	1,466.7	9.5	1,498.0	9.9	49.4
British Columbia	2,023.8	13.2	1,999.3	13.2	50.3
Yukon	14.8	0.1	15.9	0.1	48.2
Northwest Territories	20.1	0.1	21.6	0.1	48.2
Nunavut	12.8	0.1	14.2	0.1	47.4
Total	**15,387.9**	**100.0**	**15,103.4**	**100.0**	**50.4**

[1] *Adjusted for net census undercoverage.*
Source: *Statistics Canada, Demography Division.*

 Table 1.4

Urban/rural distribution of the population, 1996[1]

	Women		Men		Women as a % of the population in area
	000s	%	000s	%	
Urban areas					
Census metropolitan areas[2]	8,481.9	58.6	8,056.7	57.4	51.3
Census agglomerations[3]	1,875.4	13.0	1,767.4	12.6	51.4
Other urban areas[4]	1,025.3	7.1	979.5	7.0	51.1
Total urban	11,382.4	78.6	10,803.7	76.9	51.3
Rural					
Farm	362.4	2.5	409.9	2.9	46.9
Non-farm	2,736.3	18.9	2,833.3	20.2	49.1
Total rural	3,098.8	21.4	3,243.2	23.1	48.9
Total	**14,481.2**	**100.0**	**14,046.9**	**100.0**	**50.8**

1 *Data are not adjusted for net census undercoverage and therefore are not directly comparable with other data in this chapter.*
2 *Includes urban areas with population of 100,000 and over.*
3 *Includes urban areas with population between 10,000 and 99,999.*
4 *Includes urban areas with population under 10,000.*
Source: *Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.*

 Table 1.5

Proportion of the population who made a residential move within the past five years, 1996

	Women		Men	
	000s	%	000s	%
Moved within same community	3,126.4	23.1	3,004.4	23.0
Moved within province	1,816.7	13.4	1,758.3	13.4
Interprovincial mover	439.0	3.2	451.3	3.4
External migrant	481.9	3.6	446.8	3.4
Total movers	**5,864.0**	**43.3**	**5,660.8**	**43.3**
Non-movers	7,677.1	56.7	7,402.3	56.7
Total	**13,541.1**	**100.0**	**13,063.1**	**100.0**

Source: *Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 1.6

Population in the visible minority community, 1996

	Women			Men			Women as a % of visible minority group
	000s	As a % of all visible minority women	As a % of all women in Canada	000s	As a % of all visible minority men	As a % of all men in Canada	
Chinese	440.1	27.0	3.0	420.0	26.8	3.0	51.2
South Asian	330.4	20.2	2.3	340.2	21.7	2.4	49.3
Black	300.5	18.4	2.1	273.3	17.4	2.0	52.4
Arab/West Asian	110.7	6.8	0.8	133.9	8.6	1.0	45.3
Filipino	136.4	8.4	0.9	97.8	6.2	0.7	58.2
Latin American	89.5	5.4	0.6	87.5	5.6	0.6	50.6
Southeast Asian	86.6	5.3	0.6	86.2	5.5	0.6	50.1
Japanese	36.2	2.2	0.3	31.9	2.0	0.2	53.1
Korean	34.0	2.1	0.2	30.9	2.0	0.2	52.4
Other visible minority	67.5	4.1	0.5	63.8	4.1	0.4	51.4
Total	**1,631.9**	**100.0**	**11.3**	**1,565.6**	**100.0**	**11.1**	**51.0**

Source: *Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 1.7

Aboriginal identity population, 1996

	Women		Men		Women as a % of population of Aboriginal group
	000s	As a % of all women in Canada	000s	As a % of all men in Canada	
North American Indian	270.7	1.9	258.3	1.8	51.2
Métis	102.7	0.7	101.4	0.7	50.3
Inuit	20.0	0.1	20.2	0.1	49.8
Other[1]	14.7	0.1	10.9	0.1	57.4
Total Aboriginal identity population	**408.1**	**2.8**	**390.9**	**2.8**	**51.1**

[1] *Includes multiple Aboriginal responses, as well as those who do not consider themselves an Aboriginal person but who are Registered Indians and/or Band/First Nation members.*

Source: *Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 1.8

Knowledge of official languages, 1996

	Women		Men	
	000s	%	000s	%
English only	9,592.2	66.2	9,542.1	67.9
French only	2,187.8	15.1	1,891.2	13.4
Bilingual	2,415.7	16.7	2,425.6	17.3
Neither official language	285.5	2.0	188.0	1.3
Total	**14,481.2**	**100.0**	**14,046.9**	**100.0**

Source: *Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 1.9

Home language,[1] 1996

	Women		Men	
	000s	%	000s	%
English	9,629.5	66.5	9,401.8	66.9
French	3,242.1	22.4	3,117.4	22.2
Non-official language	1,311.9	9.1	1,244.9	8.9
Other	297.7	2.1	282.7	2.0
Total	**14,481.2**	**100.0**	**14,046.9**	**100.0**

[1] *Refers to the language most often spoken in the home.*
Source: *Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 1.10

Religious affiliation of women and men aged 15 and over, 1996

	Women	Men
	%	
Roman Catholic	45.4	42.6
Protestant		
United Church	10.3	8.1
Anglican	6.6	6.7
Presbyterian	2.4	2.0
Lutheran	2.1	2.3
Baptist	2.4	1.8
Other Protestant	8.9	9.1
Total Protestant	32.7	30.0
Eastern Orthodox	0.6	0.9
Jewish	0.8	1.2
Other non-Protestant	2.8	3.7
Other/unknown[1]	5.0	5.4
None	12.6	16.1
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**
Total number (000s)	**11,986.8**	**11,618.0**

[1] *Includes not stated.*

Source: *Statistics Canada, General Social Survey.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 1.11

Percentage of women and men aged 15 and over attending religious activities, 1996

	Women	Men
	%	
Once a week	23.4	16.4
Once a month	9.4	9.6
A few times a year	17.1	17.4
Once a year	7.7	7.7
Not at all	24.5	27.1
Other[1]	17.8	21.8
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**
Total number (000s)	**11,986.8**	**11,618.0**

[1] *Includes those with no religious affiliation as well as not stated.*

Source: *Statistics Canada, General Social Survey.*

CHAPTER 2

Family Status

by Marcia Almey

Most women live with their families

The vast majority of women in Canada live with members of their family.[1] In 1996, 84% of women aged 15 and over, about the same figure as for men, were living with either their immediate or extended family. (Table 2.1)

The proportion of women living with their family, however, has declined somewhat since the early 1970s. In 1996, 84% of the female population aged 15 and over were living with their family, down from 89% in 1971.

Most women living with family members are living with their husband. In 1996, exactly half of all Canadian women aged 15 and over were living with their husband, while 8% were living in a common-law relationship, another 8% were lone parents, 14% were children still living at home with their parents, and 4% were living with members of their extended family, such as the family of a daughter or son.

The proportion of women living with a marital spouse, though, is slightly less than the figure for men. In 1996, 50% of all women aged 15 and over, versus 53% of adult men, were living with their spouse.

As well, the proportion of women living with their spouse has been falling since the early 1980s. In 1996, 50% of women were spouses in a husband-wife family, down from 56% in 1981.

While the share of women living with their husband has been falling in recent decades, the proportion living in a common-law union has risen. In 1996, 8% of women were living with a common-law partner, double the figure in 1981, when just 4% were in such a relationship. As well, the share of women currently in a common-law relationship is roughly similar to that for men.

There has also been an increase in the proportions of women who are lone parents. In 1996, 8% of all women aged 15 and over were lone parents, up from 5% in the early 1970s. As noted in the more detailed section on female-headed lone-parent families, women continue to make up the vast majority of lone parents in Canada.

A small proportion of women live with their extended families, usually the family of a daughter or son. In 1996, 4% of women aged 15 and over lived in such an arrangement, though this is down slightly from 5% in 1971.

More women living alone

While the large majority of Canadian women live with their family, a growing proportion are living alone. In 1996, almost one and a half million women, 13% of the total female population aged 15 and over, were living alone. Indeed, the share of adult women living alone has almost doubled since 1971, when the figure was 7%.

As well, women are more likely to live alone than men. In 1996, 13% of women aged 15 and over, versus 10% of adult men, were living on their own.

Differences in family status by age

Not surprisingly, there is considerable variation in the family status of women in different age groups. Women between the ages of 25 and 64 are much more likely than either younger women or seniors to be living with their husband. In 1996, a substantial majority of both women aged 25-44 (58%) and those aged 45-64 (68%) were living with their husband, whereas this was the case for only 43% of women aged 65 and over and just 7% of 15- to 24-year-olds. (Table 2.2)

Women between the ages of 25 and 44 are also the most likely women to be living in a common-law relationship. In 1996, 13% of these women were living with a common-law partner, as were 9% of those aged 15-24. In contrast, this was the case for only 5% of women aged 45-64 and just 1% of senior women.

Women in the 25-64 age range are also considerably more likely than their younger and older counterparts to be lone parents. In 1996, around one in 10 women aged either 25-44 (11%) or 45-64 (9%) were lone parents, compared with 6% of senior women and 3% of 15- to 24-year-old females.

In contrast, senior women are, by far, the most likely to live alone. In 1996, 38% of all women aged 65 and over were living on their own, compared with just 12% of women aged 45-64, 7% of those aged 25-44, and 3% of 15- to 24-year-olds.

Senior women, though, are also considerably more likely than their younger counterparts to live with members of their extended family. In 1996, 10% of women aged 65 and over lived in an extended family setting, versus 3% or less of women in other age groups.

Marriage rate down

The long-term decline in the proportion of women who are spouses in a husband-wife family reflects, in part, a substantial drop in the annual marriage rate in the last two decades. In 1997, there were only 5.1 marriages for every 1,000 people in Canada, down from around 7 in the late 1980s and around 9 in the early 1970s. (Table 2.3)

Overall, there were 153,300 marriages in Canada in 1997. This was down 20% from the number in 1989 and 24% below the peak figure recorded in 1972, when there were slightly over 200,000 marriages.

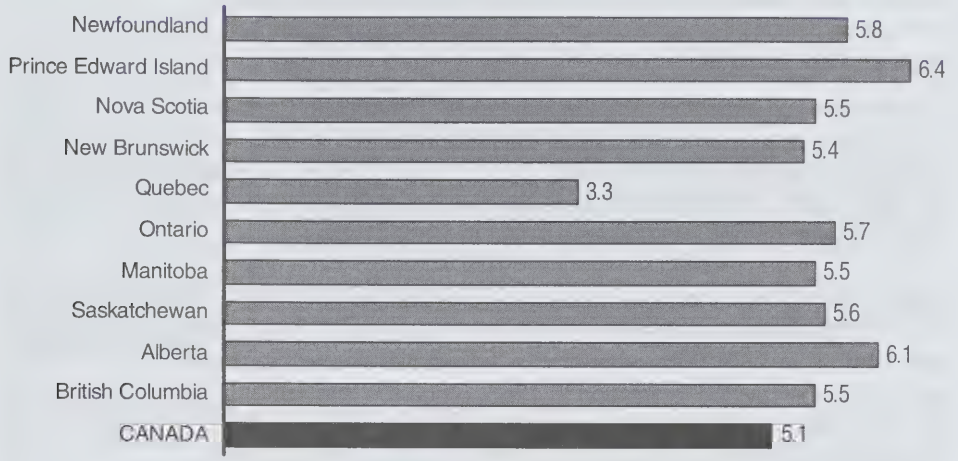
Women in Canada are also marrying at older ages than they did in the past. In 1997, the average age at first marriage for brides was 28 years, up from 26 in 1990 and 22 in 1971.

Women, though, still tend to marry at younger ages than do men. In 1997, first-time brides were, on average, two years younger than first-time grooms, who marry, on average, at 30 years of age. In fact, the gap between the ages at which women and men marry for the first time has consistently been around two years since the early 1970s.

Marriage rates are similar across the country, with the exception of Quebec, where this rate is well below the national figure. In 1997, there were only 3.3 marriages per 1,000 population in Quebec, whereas the figure in the other provinces ranged from 5.4 in New Brunswick to 6.4 in Prince Edward Island. (Chart 2.1)

WOMEN IN CANADA Chart 2.1

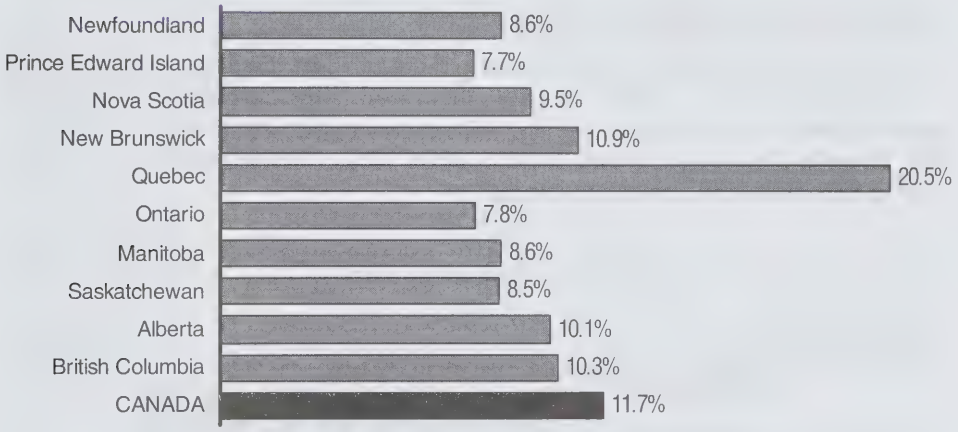
Marriages per 1,000 population, by province, 1997



Source: *Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 84F0212-XPB.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Chart 2.2

Common-law families as a percentage of all families, by province, 1996



Source: *Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.*

The marriage rate in Quebec is low, in part, because a disproportionate share of couples in this province are living common-law. In 1996, common-law families made up 21% of all families in Quebec, whereas in the remaining provinces, the figure ranged from 11% in New Brunswick to just 8% in both Ontario and Prince Edward Island. (Chart 2.2)

Remarriages

While the overall marriage rate has fallen, more Canadian women are marrying for a second or subsequent time. In 1997, 24% of all brides had been married before, up from 18% in 1980 and less than 10% in the 1960s. The share of women marrying for a second or subsequent time, though, was about the same as that for men in 1997. (Table 2.4)

Women who are divorced make up the vast majority of women who remarry. In fact, divorced women represented almost nine out of 10 women who remarried in 1997, while the rest were widowers. This is a significant shift from the 1960s, when a greater share of remarriages involved widowed rather than divorced women.

Divorce rate higher

In contrast to the marriage rate, the incidence of divorce in Canada is currently much higher than it was in the late 1960s. This has resulted, in part, from revisions in the legislation regarding divorce in 1968, and again in 1986, which eased restrictions on marital dissolution. In 1997, there were 225 divorces for every 100,000 people in Canada, compared with 55 per 100,000 population in 1968. (Table 2.5)

Most of the long-term increase in the incidence of divorce in Canada, however, occurred in the 1970s. Between 1968 and 1982, the number of divorces per 100,000 people rose from 55 to 280. There was also a substantial rise in the divorce rate following passage of the revised legislation in 1985. Since the late 1980s, though, the divorce rate has been falling. In 1997, there were 225 divorces per 100,000 population, 7% less than the figure the year before and 28% less than that in 1988.

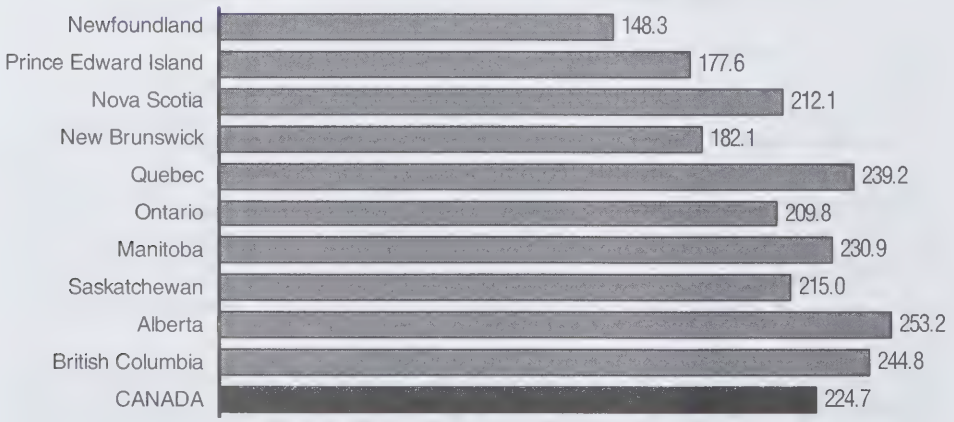
Divorce rates in Canada are somewhat higher in the two westernmost provinces and in Quebec than they are in other provinces. In 1997, there were 253 divorces per 100,000 population in Alberta and 245 in British Columbia, while the figure in Quebec was 239. In contrast, in the remaining provinces the figure ranged from 231 in Manitoba to only 148 in Newfoundland. (Chart 2.3)

Growing numbers of female lone parents

The long-term increase in divorce rates has affected, in part, the growth in the number of women who are lone parents. In 1996, there were 945,000 female-headed lone-parent families in Canada, representing 19% of all families with children. In fact, the latter figure is almost double that in 1971, when 10% of families with children were headed by female lone parents. (Table 2.6)

WOMEN IN CANADA Chart 2.3

Divorces per 100,000 population, by province, 1997



Source: *Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 84F0213-XPB.*

Women also continue to make up the large majority of lone parents. In 1996, 83% of all one-parent families were headed by women, a figure that has remained relatively constant since the mid-1970s.

The majority of female lone parents are either divorced or separated from their spouse. In 1996, 54% of all female lone parents were either divorced (33%) or separated (21%). (Table 2.7)

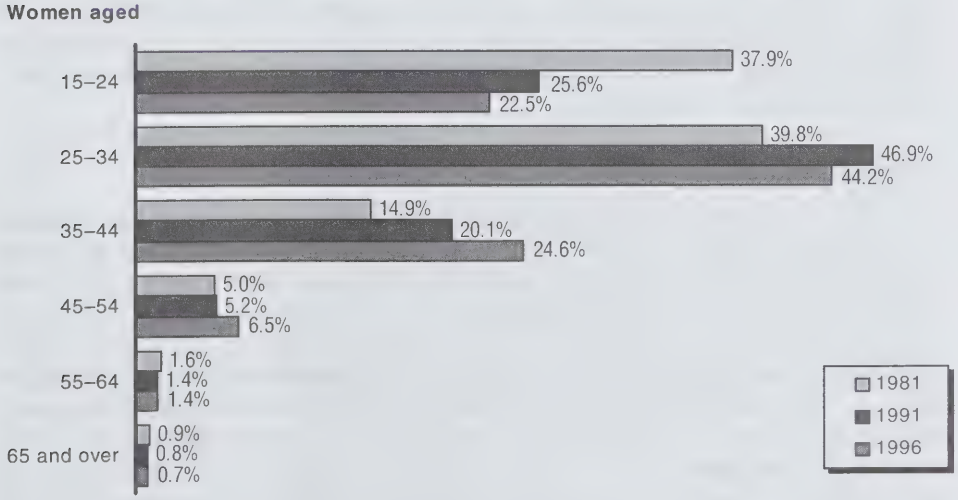
While the largest share of female lone parents come from marriages that ended in divorce, a growing proportion are single, never-married women raising children on their own. In 1996, 24% of female lone parents were single, more than double the share in 1981, when this was the case for only 11% of female lone parents. It should be noted, however, that many of these women may actually have been living in a common-law relationship at the time their children were born and these relationships have since ended.

As well, single, never-married lone parents of today tend to be older, on average, than their counterparts were in the past. In 1996, 25% of these lone parents were aged 35-44, up from 15% in 1981. At the same time, 44% of single, never-married lone mothers fell in the 25-34 age bracket in 1996, compared with 40% in 1981. In contrast, the proportion of single, never-married female lone parents aged 15-24 dropped from 38% to 23% in this period. (Chart 2.4)

There is also some variation in the incidence of female-headed lone-parent families across the country, although these families account for a relatively large share of families in all provinces. In 1996, 20% of all families with children in both Nova Scotia and Quebec were lone-parent families headed by women, while the figure in the remaining provinces ranged from 19% in British Columbia to 16% in both Alberta and Newfoundland. (Chart 2.5)

WOMEN IN CANADA Chart 2.4

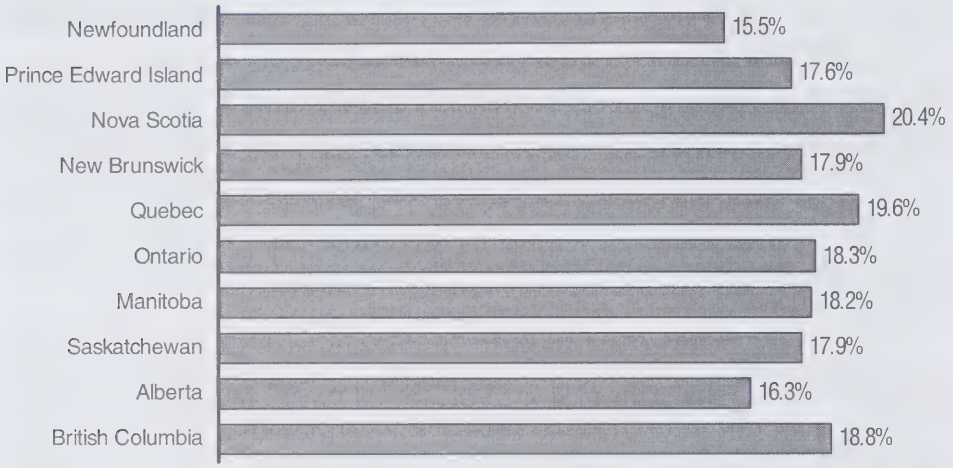
Single, never-married female lone parents, by age, 1981, 1991 and 1996



Sources: *Statistics Canada, Catalogue nos. 92-905-XPB and 93-312-XPB, and Censuses of Canada.*

 Chart 2.5

Female-headed lone-parent families as a percentage of all families with children, by province, 1996



Source: *Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.*

Custody of children in divorce

One reason why women make up such a large proportion of lone parents is that mothers generally get custody of the children when marriages break down. Of all custody decisions settled in court in 1997,[2] mothers were awarded custody of the children 61% of the time, whereas fathers were awarded custody in only 11% of these cases. (Table 2.8)

In recent years, though, there has been a noticeable trend toward joint-custody awards. In 1997, 28% of all court-determined divorce cases resulted in a joint-custody settlement, up from 14% in the early 1990s and just 1% in 1986.

One result of the trend toward joint-custody arrangements has been that the share of custody orders being awarded solely to women has fallen in recent years. While women received sole custody in 61% of these cases in 1997, this was down from around 75% in the late 1980s. In contrast, there was almost no decline in the share of awards going solely to fathers in the last decade.

Low birth rates

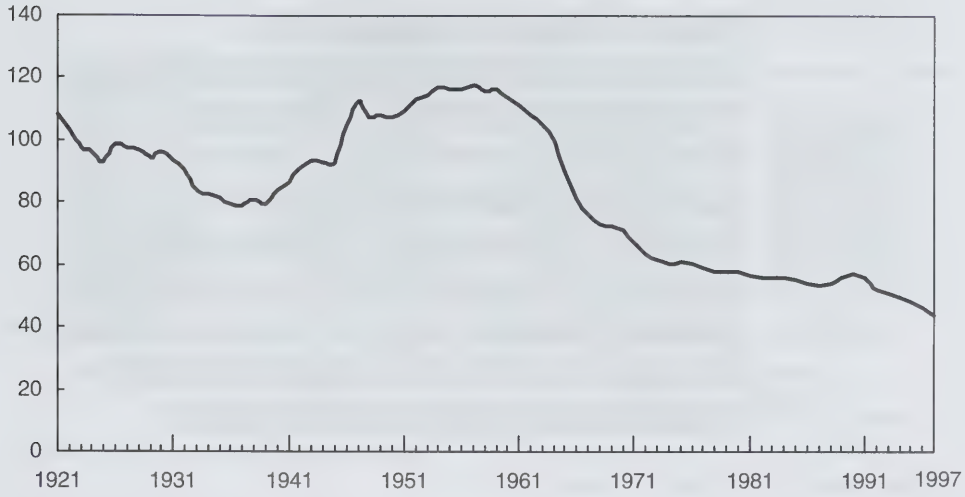
One of the most dramatic trends in family life has been the decline in the birth rate among Canadian women. In 1997, there were just 44 births for every 1,000 woman in Canada aged 15-49, less than half the figure in 1959, when there were 116 births per 1,000 women in this age range. (Chart 2.6)

Most of the long-term decline in the birth rate, however, occurred in the 1960s. Between 1959 and 1970, the birth rate dropped almost 40% from 116 births per 1,000 women aged 15-49 to just 71. Indeed, there was little change in the birth rate over the course of the next two decades.

After close to two decades of stability, however, birth rates in Canada have fallen in recent years. In 1997, there were 44 births per 1,000 women aged 15-49, 23% lower than in 1990, when the figure was 57 births per women aged 15-49.

WOMEN IN CANADA Chart 2.6

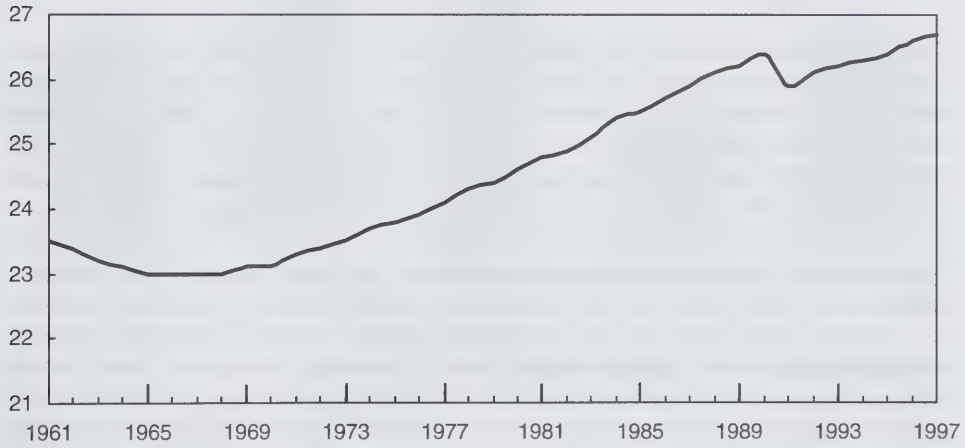
Births per 1,000 women aged 15-49, 1921-1997[1]



[1] *Data to 1985 do not include Newfoundland.*
Sources: *Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 84-210-XPE, and Health Statistics Division.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Chart 2.7

Average age of mother at birth of first child, 1961-1997



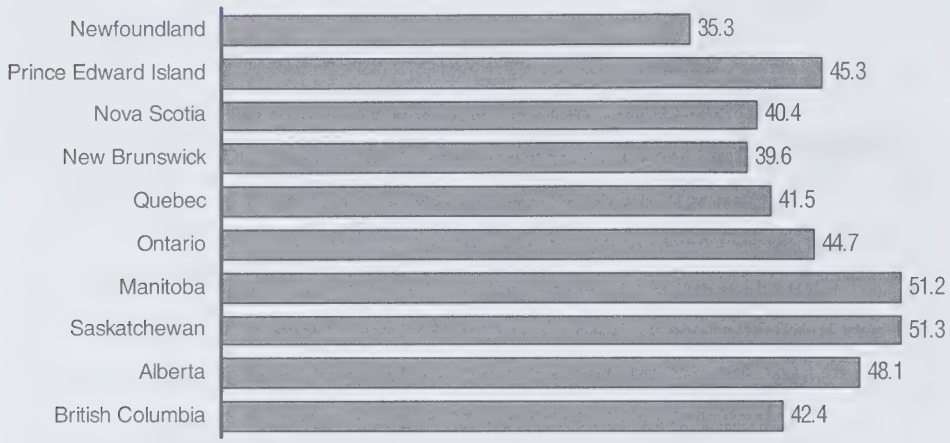
Sources: *Statistics Canada, Catalogue nos. 82-553-XPB and 84-210-XPB.*

One reason for the lower birth rate among women is that many women are waiting longer to have their children than they did in the past. The average age of women at the birth of their first child in 1997 was almost 27, up from 26 in 1990 and 23 in the late 1960s. (Chart 2.7)

As with most other family-related variables, birth rates vary considerably across Canada. In 1997, there were 51 births for every 1,000 women in each of Manitoba and Saskatchewan, while Alberta with 48, and Ontario and Prince Edward Island, both with 45, were also above the national rate. In the remaining provinces the figure ranged from 42 in both British Columbia and Quebec to a low of 35 in Newfoundland. (Chart 2.8)

WOMEN IN CANADA Chart 2.8

Births per 1,000 women aged 15-49, by province, 1997



Source: *Statistics Canada, Health Statistics Division.*

Birth rates by age

Currently, women aged 25-29 have the highest birth rate of any five-year female age group. In 1997, there were 104 children born for every 1,000 women aged 25-29, compared with 84 for women aged 30-34, 64 for those aged 20-24, 33 among women aged 35-39, and 20 among female teenagers. (Table 2.9)

There have, however, been quite different long-term trends in birth rates among women depending on whether they are over or under age 30. On the one hand, there have been precipitous declines in birth rates among women under age 30 in the past several decades. Among those aged 20-24, there were 64 births for every 1,000 women in 1997, down from over 100 in the mid-1970s and over 200 in the early 1960s. There were similar declines among both women aged 25-29 and teenaged women.

In contrast, birth rates have generally risen among women in their thirties in the past decade and a half. There were 33 births for every 1,000 women aged 35-39 in 1997, up from just 19 in 1981. The birth rate among women aged 30-34 is also currently substantially higher than it was in the early 1980s. There were 84 births per 1,000 women in this age group in 1997, versus 67 in 1981. The 1997 figure among 30- to 34-year-old women, however, is down slightly from highs of 87 births per 1,000 women in this age group the two previous years. Still, the birth rate among women aged 30-34 is now higher than that for women aged 20-24, whereas, in 1981, the opposite was true.

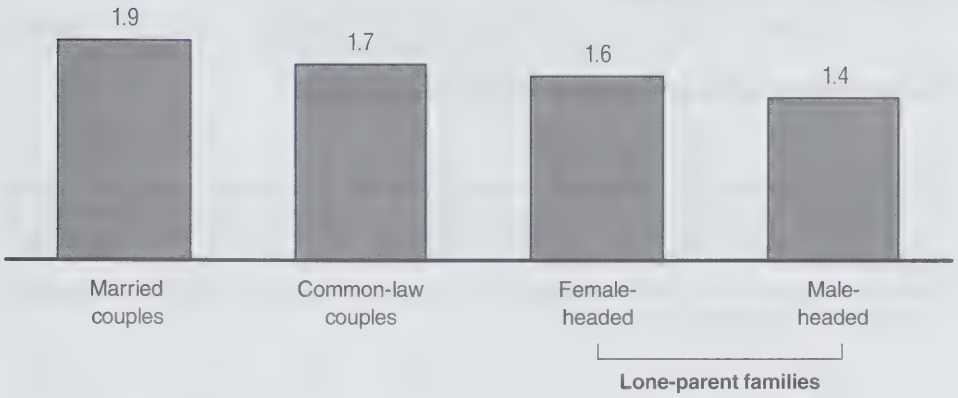
Fewer children per family

Partly as a result of the decline in birth rates, Canadian families now have fewer children living at home than they did in the past. In 1996, there was an average of 1.2 children living at home per family, down from 1.4 in 1981 and 1.8 in 1971. (Table 2.10)

This reflects, in turn, the fact there has been an increase in the share of families without children living at home. These families, which include both couples which have never had children, as well as empty-nesters whose children have left home, made up 35% of all families in 1996, up from 27% in 1971.

WOMEN IN CANADA Chart 2.9

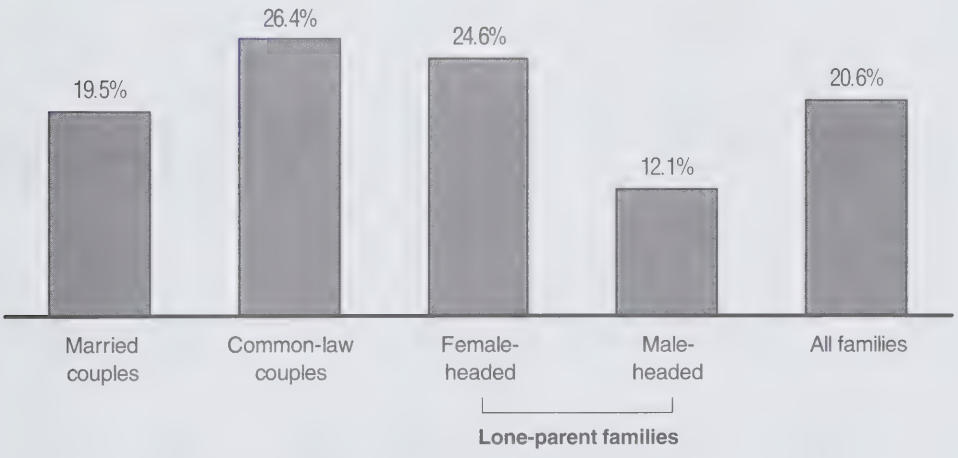
Average number of children living at home per family, by family type, 1996



Source: *Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Chart 2.10

Percentage of families with children under age 6, by family type, 1996



Source: *Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.*

Married-couple families generally have more children living at home than either common-law couples or lone-parent families headed by women. Of families with at least one child living at home in 1996, married-couple families had an average of 1.9 children at home, compared with 1.7 in common-law families, and 1.6 in female-headed lone-parent households. (Chart 2.9)

Families with young children

About one in five Canadian families have pre-school aged children. In 1996, 21% of all families had at least one child under the age of six. (Chart 2.10)

Common-law families and families headed by female lone parents are the most likely families to have young children at home. In 1996, 26% of families headed by a common-law couple and 25% of those headed by a female lone parent had at least one child under age 6, compared with 20% of married-couple families and just 12% of lone-parent families headed by men.

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1 *In this context, family refers to a census family. Persons living with their family include spouses, either married or common-law, lone parents, never-married children living at home, and those in an extended family, such as the family of a daughter or son. Persons not living with their family include those living alone or with unrelated persons.*

2 *Note that these figures only include cases decided by the courts and do not include those in which custody arrangements were decided outside of court.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 2.1

Family status of women and men aged 15 and over, 1971-1996

	1971		1981		1991		1996	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
				%				
Living with family								
With husband or wife	61.7	63.1	56.2	58.4	52.6	55.2	50.0	52.8
With common-law partner[1]	--	--	3.8	4.0	6.7	7.1	8.0	8.4
Lone parent	5.1	1.4	6.3	1.4	7.3	1.6	8.2	1.8
Child living with parents	17.1	22.4	15.7	20.9	13.2	18.0	13.7	18.5
Living with extended family members	5.3	3.8	4.3	3.4	3.9	3.1	3.7	3.0
Total living with family	89.2	90.7	86.3	88.1	83.7	85.0	83.5	84.4
Not living with family								
Living alone	6.6	4.4	10.6	7.7	12.3	9.4	12.9	10.4
Living with non-relatives	4.2	4.9	3.2	4.3	3.9	5.6	3.6	5.2
Total not living with family	10.8	9.3	13.8	12.0	16.2	15.0	16.4	15.6
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
Total population (000s)	**7,413.4**	**7,252.1**	**9,352.2**	**9,000.4**	**10,782.6**	**10,284.8**	**11,552.0**	**10,954.4**

[1] *Prior to 1981, common-law families were included with married-couple families.*

Source: *Statistics Canada, Censuses of Canada.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 2.2

Family status of women and men, by age, 1996

	People aged							
	15-24		25-44		45-64		65 and over	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
				%				
Living with family								
With husband or wife	6.5	2.6	58.3	52.9	68.2	74.5	42.7	74.6
With common-law partner	8.7	4.8	12.6	13.3	4.8	6.4	0.8	1.9
Lone parent	3.2	0.1	10.8	1.8	8.6	2.7	5.9	1.8
Child living with parents	68.9	78.6	5.4	10.2	0.9	1.2	0.1	0.1
Living with extended family members	2.9	3.4	1.9	3.3	2.9	1.8	10.3	3.7
Total living with family	90.2	89.4	88.9	81.4	85.4	86.7	59.9	82.1
Not living with family								
Living alone	3.0	3.3	7.1	11.5	12.4	10.6	38.4	16.0
Living with non-relatives	6.8	7.3	4.0	7.0	2.3	2.7	1.7	1.9
Total not living with family	9.8	10.6	11.1	18.5	14.6	13.3	40.2	17.9
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
Total population (000s)	**1,883.8**	**1,941.7**	**4,715.1**	**4,567.7**	**3,109.4**	**3,036.6**	**1,843.7**	**1,408.6**

Source: *Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.*

 Table 2.3

Marriages and average age at first marriage, 1971-1997

	Number of marriages	Marriages per 1,000 population	Average age at first marriage	
			Women	Men
1971	191,324	8.9	22.1	24.4
1972	200,470	9.2	21.7	24.2
1973	199,064	9.0	21.8	24.2
1974	198,824	8.7	21.9	24.2
1975	197,585	8.5	22.6	24.9
1976	186,844	8.0	22.8	25.1
1977	187,344	7.9	22.9	25.2
1978	185,523	7.7	23.1	25.3
1979	187,811	7.8	23.2	25.4
1980	191,069	7.8	23.4	25.5
1981	190,082	7.7	23.6	25.7
1982	188,360	7.5	23.8	25.9
1983	184,675	7.3	24.1	26.2
1984	185,597	7.2	24.4	26.5
1985	184,096	7.1	24.7	26.7
1986	175,518	6.7	24.9	27.0
1987	182,151	6.9	25.3	27.4
1988	187,728	7.0	25.5	27.6
1989	190,640	7.0	25.8	27.8
1990	187,737	6.8	26.0	27.9
1991	172,251	6.1	26.2	28.2
1992	164,573	5.8	26.6	28.5
1993	159,316	5.6	26.8	28.7
1994	159,959	5.5	26.9	28.8
1995	160,251	5.5	27.1	29.0
1996	156,691	5.3	27.6	29.3
1997	153,306	5.1	28.0	30.0

Sources: *Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 84-212-XPB, and Health Statistics Division.*

 Table 2.4

Marital status of brides and bridegrooms, 1961-1997

	Brides				Bridegrooms			
	Single	Widowed	Divorced	Total	Single	Widowed	Divorced	Total
				%				
1961	91.1	5.1	3.8	100.0	91.5	4.5	4.0	100.0
1962	91.2	4.9	3.9	100.0	91.6	4.4	4.0	100.0
1963	90.9	5.0	4.1	100.0	91.4	4.4	4.2	100.0
1964	91.1	4.8	4.1	100.0	91.4	4.2	4.4	100.0
1965	91.1	4.6	4.3	100.0	91.5	4.1	4.4	100.0
1966	91.3	4.4	4.3	100.0	91.4	4.0	4.6	100.0
1967	91.3	4.4	4.3	100.0	91.6	3.8	4.6	100.0
1968	91.3	4.3	4.4	100.0	91.6	3.7	4.7	100.0
1969	89.3	4.3	6.4	100.0	89.4	3.7	6.9	100.0
1970	88.9	4.2	6.9	100.0	88.8	3.6	7.6	100.0
1971	88.4	4.1	7.5	100.0	88.3	3.6	8.1	100.0
1972	88.4	3.9	7.7	100.0	88.1	3.5	8.4	100.0
1973	87.5	3.9	8.6	100.0	87.7	3.4	9.5	100.0
1974	86.6	3.8	9.6	100.0	85.8	3.4	10.7	100.0
1975	85.4	3.8	10.8	100.0	84.5	3.3	12.1	100.0
1976	84.2	3.8	11.9	100.0	83.3	3.3	13.3	100.0
1977	83.7	3.7	12.6	100.0	82.7	3.3	14.0	100.0
1978	83.0	3.5	13.4	100.0	81.9	3.2	14.9	100.0
1979	82.5	3.4	14.1	100.0	81.3	3.1	15.6	100.0
1980	82.1	3.2	14.7	100.0	80.7	3.1	16.2	100.0
1981	81.3	3.2	15.5	100.0	80.0	3.0	17.0	100.0
1982	81.2	2.9	15.9	100.0	79.4	2.9	17.7	100.0
1983	80.1	2.9	17.0	100.0	78.5	2.8	18.7	100.0
1984	79.7	3.2	17.1	100.0	78.0	3.0	19.0	100.0
1985	79.7	2.9	17.4	100.0	78.2	2.9	18.9	100.0
1986	78.9	2.9	18.2	100.0	78.4	2.9	18.7	100.0
1987	76.5	3.4	20.1	100.0	76.0	3.1	20.9	100.0
1988	76.7	3.0	20.3	100.0	76.2	2.9	21.0	100.0
1989	76.7	3.1	20.2	100.0	76.4	2.9	20.7	100.0
1990	77.4	2.9	19.7	100.0	76.5	2.7	20.8	100.0
1991	77.6	2.9	19.5	100.0	76.6	2.8	20.6	100.0
1992	77.1	3.0	19.9	100.0	76.3	2.9	20.9	100.0
1993	76.9	2.9	20.2	100.0	76.0	2.9	21.1	100.0
1994	76.7	2.9	20.4	100.0	76.0	2.9	21.2	100.0
1995	76.2	2.9	20.9	100.0	75.7	2.8	21.5	100.0
1996	75.5	3.0	21.5	100.0	75.0	3.0	22.0	100.0
1997	75.6	2.9	21.4	100.0	75.1	2.9	21.9	100.0

Source: *Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 84-212-XPB.*

Number of divorces and divorce rate, 1971-1997

Year	Number of divorces	Divorces per 100,000 population
1968	11,343	54.8
1969	26,093	124.2
1970	29,775	139.8
1971	29,685	137.6
1972	32,389	148.4
1973	36,704	166.1
1974	45,019	200.6
1975	50,611	222.0
1976	54,207	235.8
1977	55,370	237.7
1978	57,155	243.4
1979	59,474	251.3
1980	62,019	259.1
1981	67,671	278.0
1982	70,430	279.5
1983	68,565	269.3
1984	65,170	253.6
1985	61,976	238.9
1986	78,304	298.8
1987	96,200	362.3
1988	83,507	310.5
1989	80,998	295.8
1990	78,463	282.3
1991	77,020	273.9
1992	79,034	277.9
1993	78,226	270.2
1994	78,880	269.7
1995	77,636	262.2
1996	71,528	241.1
1997	67,408	224.7

Sources: *Statistics Canada, Catalogue nos. 82-003-XPB and 84-213-XPB, and Health Statistics Division.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 2.6

Lone-parent families, 1961-1996

	Female-headed		Male-headed		
	000s	As a % of all families with children	000s	As a % of all families with children	Women as a % of lone parents
1961	272.2	9.0	75.2	2.5	78.4
1966	300.4	9.0	71.5	2.2	80.8
1971	378.1	10.4	100.7	2.8	79.0
1976	464.3	11.6	95.0	2.4	83.0
1981	589.8	13.7	124.2	2.9	82.6
1986	701.9	15.5	151.7	3.3	82.2
1991	786.4	16.4	168.2	3.5	82.4
1996	945.2	18.5	192.3	3.8	83.1

Sources: *Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 93-312-XPB, and Censuses of Canada.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 2.7

Marital status of lone parents, 1981-1996

	Female lone parents				Male lone parents			
	1981	1986	1991	1996	1981	1986	1991	1996
	%							
Single, never married[1]	11.1	15.0	19.4	24.2	4.1	6.3	8.1	11.9
Separated	25.3	24.0	21.0	20.6	26.6	26.2	22.2	24.8
Divorced	26.3	30.0	32.6	33.1	25.7	30.9	33.2	39.8
Widowed	33.3	27.4	23.4	20.1	30.1	24.7	20.6	19.3
Married, but spouse not present	4.0	3.7	3.6	1.9	13.4	12.0	15.9	4.2
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
Total number of lone parents (000s)	**589.4**	**701.8**	**788.4**	**945.2**	**124.4**	**151.4**	**165.2**	**192.3**

[1] *Includes those who lived in a now-terminated common-law relationship at the time their children were born.*
Source: *Statistics Canada, Censuses of Canada.*

Table 2.8

Custody of children involved in divorces,[1] 1978-1997

	Custody given to						Total divorces involving custody decisions
	Mother	Father	Joint	Other person/ agency	No award/ unknown	Total	
				%			
1978	78.7	15.6	--	0.3	5.4	100.0	59,436
1979	78.8	15.8	--	0.2	5.3	100.0	57,856
1980	78.2	16.0	--	0.2	5.5	100.0	59,600
1981	77.9	15.8	--	0.3	6.0	100.0	62,434
1982	77.1	15.6	--	0.2	6.9	100.0	65,441
1983	74.9	15.7	--	0.2	9.1	100.0	64,221
1984	74.3	15.5	--	0.2	10.0	100.0	60,063
1985	72.8	15.2	--	0.3	11.8	100.0	56,336
1986	71.9	15.3	1.2	0.4	11.2	100.0	60,450
1987	74.7	13.6	7.4	0.2	4.0	100.0	53,699
1988	75.8	12.9	10.1	0.3	1.0	100.0	50,249
1989	74.1	12.8	12.4	0.2	0.4	100.0	50,333
1990	73.2	12.3	14.1	0.2	0.2	100.0	48,525
1991	73.6	11.8	14.2	0.2	0.1	100.0	49,868
1992	71.9	11.7	16.0	0.1	0.3	100.0	49,019
1993	70.9	11.4	17.4	0.2	0.1	100.0	48,169
1994	69.6	9.8	20.4	0.1	--	100.0	47,667
1995	67.6	10.9	21.4	0.2	--	100.0	47,118
1996	63.2	12.1	24.5	0.2	--	100.0	43,844
1997	61.3	11.0	27.6	0.1	--	100.0	39,204

[1] *Refers only to cases decided in court.*

Sources: *Statistics Canada, Catalogue nos. 82-003S16-XPB, 82-003S17-XPB, 84-205-XPB and 84-213-XPB.*

Age-specific birth rates, 1961-1997[1]

	Births per 1,000 women aged						
	15-19	20-24	25-29	30-34	35-39	40-44	45-49
1961	58.2	233.6	219.2	144.9	81.1	28.5	2.4
1962	55.0	231.6	214.6	143.1	77.1	27.6	2.1
1963	53.1	226.0	210.6	140.3	75.8	25.9	2.1
1964	50.2	212.8	203.1	134.9	72.0	25.1	2.1
1965	49.3	188.6	181.9	119.4	65.9	22.0	2.0
1966	48.2	169.1	163.5	103.3	57.5	19.1	1.7
1967	45.2	161.4	152.6	91.8	50.9	15.9	1.5
1968	43.0	152.6	148.7	86.3	44.8	13.8	1.4
1969	42.2	147.7	149.8	85.0	42.6	12.5	1.1
1970	42.8	143.3	147.2	81.8	39.0	11.3	0.9
1971	40.1	134.4	142.0	77.3	33.6	9.4	0.6
1972	38.5	119.8	137.1	72.1	28.9	7.8	0.6
1973	37.2	117.7	131.6	67.1	25.7	6.4	0.4
1974	35.3	113.1	131.1	66.6	23.0	5.5	0.4
1975	34.8	108.4	128.8	64.2	21.4	4.8	0.4
1976	33.0	104.5	126.4	63.8	20.9	4.3	0.3
1977	31.5	102.9	125.5	65.4	20.2	3.6	0.3
1978	29.3	98.9	123.3	65.5	18.8	3.5	0.3
1979	27.4	97.5	125.4	67.1	19.1	3.3	0.2
1980	27.0	95.2	124.1	66.6	19.0	3.0	0.2
1981	25.9	91.4	123.2	66.7	19.1	3.2	0.2
1982	26.1	90.5	120.4	67.3	19.9	3.1	0.2
1983	24.6	88.1	119.9	69.1	20.2	3.0	0.2
1984	24.0	84.9	121.1	71.5	21.2	2.9	0.1
1985	23.3	81.5	120.7	72.4	21.6	3.0	0.1
1986	23.0	78.7	119.0	72.5	22.3	3.1	0.1
1987	22.8	76.1	116.7	73.2	23.2	3.3	0.2
1988	23.0	76.6	117.8	75.5	24.7	3.6	0.2
1989	24.6	78.5	119.4	79.6	26.0	3.7	0.1
1990	25.5	79.2	122.6	83.5	27.7	3.8	0.1
1991	26.0	77.5	120.3	83.6	28.3	3.9	0.2
1992	25.7	75.0	119.4	85.3	28.9	4.2	0.1
1993	24.9	73.0	114.7	84.9	29.5	4.4	0.2
1994	25.1	72.2	114.0	86.0	30.4	4.7	0.1
1995	24.5	70.5	109.7	86.8	31.3	4.8	0.2
1996	22.3	68.4	109.1	87.0	32.6	5.1	0.2
1997	20.2	64.1	103.9	84.4	32.5	5.2	0.2

[1] *Data to 1990 do not include Newfoundland.*

Sources: *Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 84-210-XPB, and Health Statistics Division.*

Families with children and average number of children per family, 1971-1996[1]

	Families			Children living at home per family
	With children living at home	Without children living at home[2]	Total	
		%		
1971	73.2	26.8	100.0	1.8
1976	69.9	30.1	100.0	1.6
1981	68.2	31.8	100.0	1.4
1986	67.3	32.7	100.0	1.3
1991	64.9	35.1	100.0	1.2
1996	65.2	34.8	100.0	1.2

[1] *Refers to families with children living at home.*

[2] *Includes families who have never had children as well as those whose children have left home.*

Sources: *Statistics Canada, Catalogue nos. 92-935-XPB, 93-312-XPB and 93-823-XPB, and Censuses of Canada.*

CHAPTER 3

The Health of Women

by Josée Normand

Women's health is getting a great deal of attention today, and deservedly so, because it has so many implications for our society. Women make up more than half the national population, including a growing proportion of the elderly population, and their health-care needs are unique in a number of respects. Female biology requires special types of care and specific kinds of research, and the socioeconomic conditions in which women live have an effect on their health. As such, any proposals for policy or further research must consider the social and political issues creating the gendered access to and distribution of wealth and other resources. In fact, the study of women's health covers an even broader spectrum since women are also the major providers of health care. Indeed, women are the primary caregivers to children and aged parents, in that they often manage the medication and carry out other various responsibilities associated with illness and other health conditions among family members. Women are also the ones who are expected to educate family members and guard their health so that problems do not occur. Women can also be significantly affected by their family relationships in that the care of others they take on may come at the expense of their own health and well-being.

Women's health is a very complex subject to study. According to the World Health Organization, health "is more than the absence of disease, [it is] a resource for everyday living." An understanding of health in all its facets, then, requires an ability to measure well-being. As such, this chapter includes data on well-being, though many indicators still focus on disease. With the available information, a general picture of women's health appears. Because of data limitations, however, some sections will continue to have more of a biomedical slant than a holistic perspective on health.

General state of women's health

Well-being, which is defined as consisting of those physical, mental, and social attributes that permit the individual to cope successfully with challenges to health and functioning, is a primary health indicator. In fact, the majority of Canadian women consider themselves to be in very good or excellent health. In 1996-97, 24% of females aged 12 and over described their health as excellent and 38% reported that it was very good. In contrast, just 8% said they were in fair health, while only 2% reported they were in poor health. Not surprisingly, however, health status tends to deteriorate somewhat among older women, as discussed in Chapter 12 on senior women. (Table 3.1)

Well-being also includes things such as psychological health. The National Population Health Survey includes several measures of psychological well-being which are conducive to coping successfully with stressors. These include self-esteem, which refers to the general sense of self-worth as a person; sense of coherence, which refers to the view of the world that events are comprehensible, challenges are manageable, and life is meaningful; and mastery, which measures the extent to which individuals feel their life is under

their own control. In 1994-95, 49% of women reported having high self-esteem, while 28% had a high sense of coherence and 19% had a high mastery. In general, women had essentially the same level of self-esteem and sense of coherence as their male counterparts, whereas they were slightly less likely to have a high sense of mastery.[1] (Table 3.2)

Women between the ages of 25 and 34 are more likely than women in other age groups to have high self-esteem. In 1994-95, over half of women in this age range were bolstered by high self-esteem, compared with 45% of those in both the 20-24 and 75-and-over age groups and around 40% or less of those in age ranges under 20.

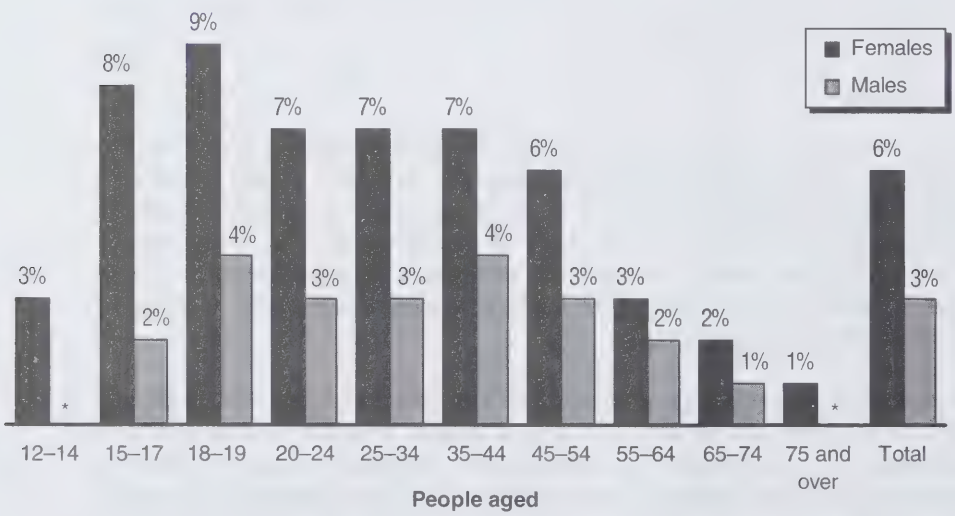
On the other hand, senior women have the highest sense of coherence. In 1994-95, 43% of women in the 65-74 age group, and 38% in the 75 and over group, reported a high sense of coherence, compared with 31% of women aged 45-54, 28% of the 55-64 group, around 25% of those aged 25-44, and 15% of women aged 20-24. In fact, these age-related differences in the psychological well-being of women reflect a reduced tendency among senior women to suffer from depression.

Depression

Depression is "a condition characterized by feelings of sadness, sometimes accompanied by a sense of helplessness, irritability and hopelessness."[2] This condition can have serious consequences for the people who suffer from it, and can affect the lives of people around them. For example, depression is known to be the cause of many psychiatric hospitalizations and suicides. While most women overcome life's challenges without falling into a depression, 6% of the female population has probably had a depressive episode in 1996-97, given their score on a risk depression test.[3] Indeed, women were twice as likely as men to suffer from this disorder that year (6% versus 3%). (Chart 3.1)

WOMEN IN CANADA Chart 3.1

Percentage of the population experiencing an episode of clinical depression, by age, 1996-97[1]



[1] *Does not include people subject to depression or another mental condition living in an institution.*

* *Data omitted due to high sampling variability.*

Source: *Statistics Canada, National Population Health Survey.*

Women under age 55 tend to have the highest risk of depression. In 1996-97, 9% of women aged 18-19, along with 8% of those in the 15-17 age group, 7% of those between the ages of 20 and 44, and 6% of those aged 45-54, exhibited symptoms of depression, compared with 3% of women aged 55-64, 2% of those aged 65-74, and 1% of those aged 75 and over.

Although young women are more likely than older women to experience depression, they tend to be depressed for a shorter period. In 1996-97, a depressive episode lasted an average of five weeks for women in the 15-17 and 18-19 age groups, compared with 10 weeks for women aged 75 and over. (Table 3.3)

Suicide

In general, women are much less likely than men to commit suicide. In 1997, a total of 767 women took their own lives. This was about 5 suicides for every 100,000 women, compared with 19 suicides per 100,000 men.[4]

Among women, those in their 40s have the highest probability of committing suicide. In 1997, there were 8.2 suicides per 100,000 women aged 40-49, compared with rates of around 6.5 in the 30-39 and 50-59 age groups, and 5 or less among senior women and women under age 30. In fact, women under the age of 20 had the lowest suicide rate at just 1.7 per 100,000. As well, in every age group, women were far less likely than men to take their own lives. (Chart 3.2)

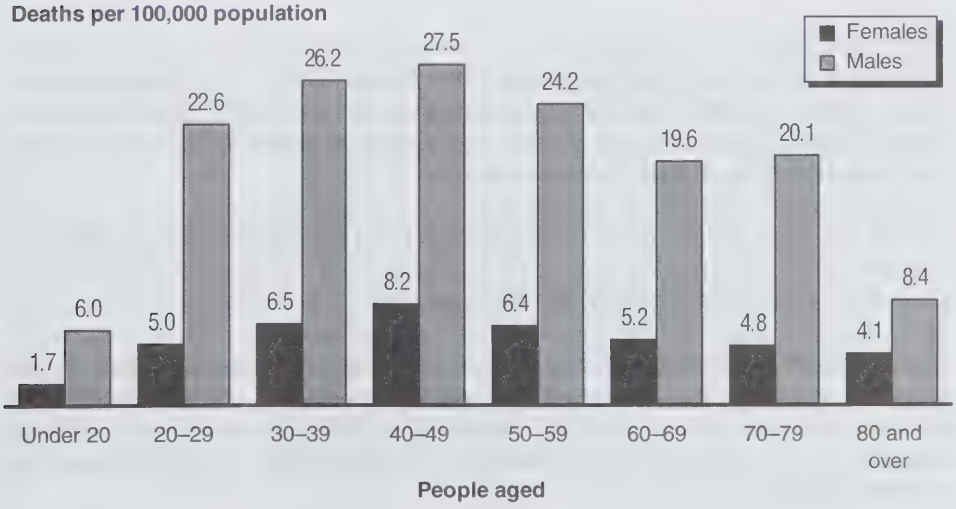
It should also be noted that the incidence of suicide is higher among certain groups of women. As indicated in the chapter on Aboriginal women, for example, the suicide rate is substantially higher among Aboriginal women than in the overall female population.[5]

Hospitalization for mental health reasons

Mental disorders are responsible for a large number of admissions of women to general and psychiatric hospitals in Canada. In 1995-96, there were over 110,000 hospital separations[6] for mental disorders for women of all ages, representing 54% of all mental hospital separations. (Table 3.4)

Chart 3.2

Suicide rates, by age, 1997



Source: *Statistics Canada, Health Statistics Division.*

Senior women aged 75 and over have a particularly high rate of hospital separations for mental health reasons. In 1995-96, there were almost 1,600 separations in psychiatric and general hospitals for mental health reasons for every 100,000 women aged 75 and over. This was almost 50% higher than the figure for women aged 35-44, the next highest figure; it was also close to double the rate for most other groups of women.

Chronic health conditions

Although a large proportion of women consider themselves in good health, for many women, the quality of life is eroded by chronic and degenerative conditions, which can lead to activity limitations, hospitalization, and even death. In 1996-97, 62% of females aged 12 and over reported suffering from some form of chronic illness, that is, a disorder that had been diagnosed by a health-care professional and had lasted, or would normally last, at least six months. In contrast, 52% of men suffered from a chronic condition. (Table 3.5)

Women are particularly susceptible to allergies, rheumatism, and back problems. In 1996-97, 26% of females aged 12 and over said they had non-food allergies, while 18% had arthritis or rheumatism and 15% had back problems. At the same time, 11% had chronic high blood pressure, another 11% suffered from migraines, and 8% had asthma.

Women are more likely than men to have most of these chronic health problems. For example, almost three times as many women as men said they suffered from migraines in 1997: 11% versus 4%. There were also substantial differences in the proportion of women and men afflicted with either non-food allergies (26% versus 19%); and arthritis or rheumatism (18% versus 10%).

Some chronic health conditions become more prevalent as women get older, while others are more frequent in the younger female population. For example, in 1997, over half (54%) of women aged 75 and over suffered from arthritis or rheumatism, compared with only 4% of women aged 20-24. By contrast, asthma affected around 15% of women aged 15-19, compared with only 6% of those aged 65 and over.

Chronic health problems are also more common among senior women than among senior men. In 1997, women aged 75 and over were nearly twice as likely as men of the same age to have hypertension: 40% versus 26%. In the same age group, 54% of women suffered from arthritis or rheumatism, compared with 37% of men.

Chronic pain

Chronic pain, which is often associated with chronic health conditions, affects the quality of life of women and has many repercussions for health care services.[7] In 1994-95, 20% of women aged 15 and over said they suffered from chronic pain, compared with 15% of men. (Table 3.6)

As well, for many women experiencing chronic pain, the pain is severe. In 1994-95, 16% of women experiencing chronic pain suffered from intense pain, while for 57% the pain was moderate and for 27% it was light.

Not surprisingly, senior women are generally more likely than their younger counterparts to suffer from chronic pain. In 1994-95, 34% of women aged 65 and over experienced chronic pain, compared with 24% of women aged 45-64, 15% of those aged 25-44, and just 13% of those aged 15-24. At all ages, though, women were more likely than men to experience chronic pain.

Sexual health

Another important aspect of the health and well-being of women relates to sexual health as, among other things, it is extremely important in preventing the spread of sexually transmitted diseases (STDs) such as AIDS. In fact, young women have a particularly high risk of contracting some types of STDs because many of them engage in risky sexual behaviour. In 1996-97, among those who reported having had sexual intercourse, 8% of women aged 18-19 and 6% of those aged 20-24 said they had had at least three different partners in the 12 months preceding the survey. These young women, though, were only about half as likely as young men to have had three or more sexual partners in the past year. (Table 3.7)

As well, about a quarter of young women who reported having had at least one sexual partner did not use a condom the last time they had sexual intercourse. In 1996-97, 27% of women in both the 18-19 and 20-24 age groups said they had had sexual intercourse with a partner of less than 12 months without the protection of a condom. In addition, 11% of women aged 20-24 reported that they never used a condom. In fact, young women appear to be somewhat less likely than men to protect themselves by using condoms.

Sexually transmitted diseases

Many young women today have sexual relations for the first time before they turn 18. They also have multiple sexual partners, which means they have greater exposure to risks such as sexually transmitted diseases. In addition, some STDs, such as chlamydia, may not cause any symptoms. They are particularly harmful to women because women are more likely than men to suffer long-term health problems after contracting an STD. For example, STDs can cause pelvic inflammation, which can seriously damage a woman's reproductive organs. They may lead to scarring of the fallopian tubes and increased risk of ectopic pregnancy or tubal sterility. It is also important to note that the data on sexually transmitted diseases probably understate the actual incidence, since the diseases are asymptomatic, especially in women. Consequently, infected persons do not seek treatment, and the disease is not diagnosed.

In general, young women have the highest incidence of STDs. In 1997, there were 972 cases of chlamydia diagnosed for every 100,000 women aged 15-19, and 915 among those in the 20-24 age group, compared with just 317 cases diagnosed per 100,000 women in the 25-29 age group and less than 100 among women aged 30 and over. (Table 3.8)

There is also a high incidence of gonorrhea among young women, though there are relatively few cases of this disease among women in all age ranges. In 1998, there were 68 gonoccal infections per 100,000 women aged 15-19 and 47 per 100,000 women aged 20-24, whereas the figure in age ranges over age 25 varied from 19 among those aged 25-29 to virtually none among women aged 60 and over. At the same time, syphilis is much less widespread, and young women do not seem to be any more susceptible to it than women in other age groups.

Young women are also more likely than young men to contract an STD. In 1997, the number of reported cases of chlamydia was seven times higher for women aged 15-19 than for men in the same age group. Similarly, there were nearly three times as many gonorrhea cases and four times as many syphilis cases among women as among men in this age range.

The incidence of chlamydia, however, has fallen sharply in recent years. For example, the chlamydia rate in the 15-19 age group in 1997 was down 37% from 1991. Similarly, the rate of new cases of gonorrhea among teenaged women dropped 41% between 1991 and 1998, while the incidence of syphilis also declined. The same pattern was also observed among young men. In view of the statistics for condom use, it is difficult to say whether the decline in the rates of diagnosed STD cases indicates that young people are more aware of the importance of protecting themselves against AIDS.

Acquired immune deficiency syndrome (AIDS)

Far fewer women than men have been diagnosed with acquired immune deficiency syndrome (AIDS) since 1989. A total of just over 1,000 female cases of AIDS, which is defined as a positive result on a human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) screening test and the onset of one or more specific clinical diseases characteristic of a weakened immune system, have been reported since 1989, compared with almost 15,000 male cases. (Table 3.9)

However, the proportion of women infected with AIDS is increasing steadily. In 1998, women accounted for 13% of all reported new cases of AIDS in the population aged 15 and over, up from 6% in 1989. Moreover, between 1990 and 1995, the number of reported new AIDS cases among women nearly doubled, jumping from 65 to 126. Figures are lower since 1995, though it is too early to say whether the number of cases reported between 1996 and 1998 represents a genuine decrease or because of underreporting. (Table 3.10)

Because the interval between infection with HIV and the development of AIDS can be 10 years or more, AIDS case statistics do not necessarily accurately portray the extent of the problem, that is, they do not include the number of women with HIV who are likely to contract the disease. In 1998, 13% of all reported HIV positive cases involved women, whereas women made up only 10% of those infected with HIV between 1985 and 1994.[8]

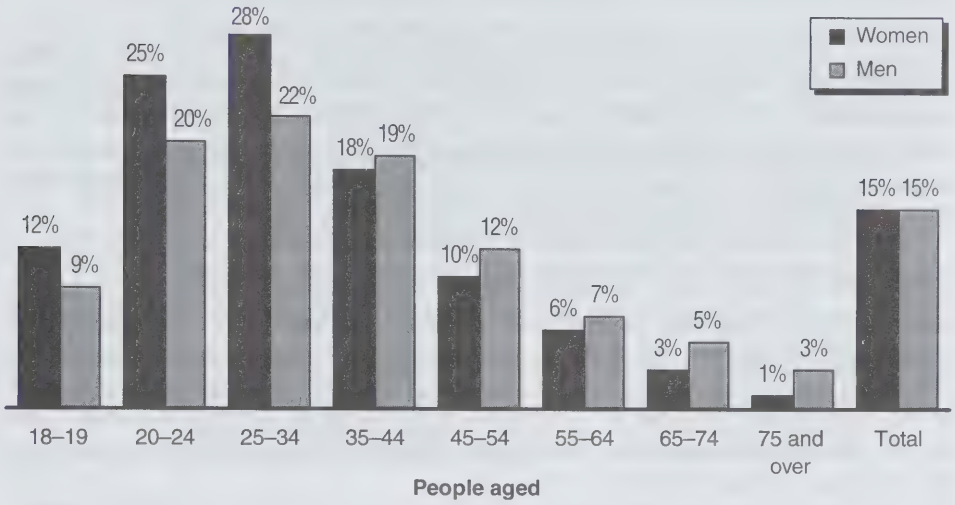
AIDS primarily affects young adult women. To date, 39% of the women infected with AIDS were between 25 and 29 years of age at the time of diagnosis and 28% were between the ages of 20 and 24. In contrast, 18% of cases involved women aged 30-39 and 14% involved women aged 40-49, while only small shares of women with AIDS were accounted for by those under age 20. Young female adults are likely at greatest risk because their first sexual contact often takes place without protection and with an older male who has, or has had, multiple partners. (Table 3.9)

A majority of female AIDS cases are attributable to heterosexual transmission. As of December 1998, 53% of all adult women with AIDS in Canada were infected through unprotected sex with HIV-infected men, while 39% were infected through injection-drug use. At the same time, small percentages were infected by contaminated blood or blood products. In contrast, among men, the most common means of infection were homosexual transmission (58%), followed by heterosexual transmission (17%).[8]

Women are more exposed than men to the danger of contracting AIDS through a sexual relationship. They are also more vulnerable because more men are infected and because HIV is more easily transmitted from a man to a woman as HIV concentrations are much heavier in semen than in vaginal fluids. Young women are particularly vulnerable when they have sexual intercourse, not only because the cervix is not yet fully developed but also because their low levels of vaginal mucus provide an ineffective barrier to infection.

 Chart 3.3

Percentage of the population ever tested for HIV/AIDS, by age, 1996-97



Source: *Statistics Canada, National Population Health Survey.*

HIV screening tests

A small proportion of women and men have taken an HIV screening test at some point in their lives. In 1996-97, 15% of women aged 18 and over reported that they had been tested, as had 15% of men. Young adult women were the most likely to have been tested. That year, 28% of women aged 25-34 and 25% of the 20-24 age group had been tested, while the figure among other age ranges ranged from 18% of women aged 35-44 to just 1% of women aged 75 and over. (Chart 3.3)

Young adult women also appear to be more inclined than their male counterparts to take a screening test. In 1996-97, 28% of women aged 25-34 had been tested, compared with 22% of men in the same age group. There was a similar difference among women aged 20-24, whereas in age groups over age 35, women were generally less likely than men to have been tested.

The results of a Health Canada survey provide some possible explanations for these differences. The survey found that respondents who had had an STD in the last five years were three times more likely to have been tested than those who reported they did not have an STD. However, among respondents who reported having had more than one partner in the last year and not using condoms consistently, 38% of women and 53% of men had never been tested. This finding is of concern, as it suggests that substantial numbers of Canadians may be HIV-positive but unaware of their infection.[9]

Abortions

The therapeutic abortion rate has risen since the early 1990s, in tandem with an increase in the number of abortion clinics.[10] In 1995, the total abortion rate (that is, abortions performed in hospitals and private clinics) was 28 per 100 live births. A majority of those abortions – 19 per 100 live births – were performed in hospitals. Indeed, the hospital abortion rate was up from 14 per 100 live births in 1975 and 18 in 1990. (Table 3.11)

There has also been an increase in the share of abortions conducted in private clinics. In 1995, 35,650 abortions, or 9 per 100 live births, were carried out in private clinics. By 1995, almost one third of the total abortions were performed in the clinics of the eight provinces, up from one in four in 1991. This increase probably reflects greater access to such clinics.

Young adult women are the group most likely to have a therapeutic abortion. In 1995, the abortion rate was 21 per 1,000 women in both the 18-19 and 20-24 age groups, while it was 14 per 1,000 women aged 25-29, 9 per 1,000 women aged either 15-17 or 30-34, 5 among 35- to 39-year-olds, and 2 per 1,000 females under age 15 and those over 40. The rate for teenaged women, however, has been steady since the late 1980s, while it has risen somewhat among women over age 20. (Table 3.12)

Life expectancy

As fragile as she may seem in her first moments of life, a girl born in Canada in 1997 could expect to live for more than 81 years. In fact, the life expectancy of women in Canada has risen substantially over the course of the century, rising from just 61 years in 1921. In addition, women in Canada have a higher life expectancy than men. Girls born in 1997, for example, had an average life expectancy of over five more years than the expected 76 years for boys. (Table 3.13)

The gap between the life expectancy of women and men, however, has narrowed in recent years. Between 1981 and 1997, life expectancy at birth rose by 2.3 years for women, compared with an increase of 3.9 years among men. This is a reversal of past trends, as until recently women have always had greater life-expectancy improvements than men. For example, between 1921 and 1981, life expectancy at birth increased by 18.5 years for women, versus 13.1 years for men. Various factors have played a role in reducing the gap of the life expectancy of females and males, including some social factors and behaviours that have led to a greater increase in life expectancy for men than for women.

Senior women also have a greater life expectancy than their male contemporaries. In 1997, women aged 65 could expect to live another 20 years, four years more than men of the same age. It is important to note, however, that greater life expectancy is not necessarily a measure of quality of life. As discussed in the chapter on senior women, older women are more likely to have a marginal standard of living or a disability, both of which are determinants of health status.

Indeed, there is increasing recognition that life expectancy is not in itself an indicator of quality of life and that it is not the same as disability-free life expectancy. Moreover, life expectancy may be different for some groups of women, such as Aboriginal women, women with disabilities, those who live in disadvantaged areas, and those who have certain types of jobs.

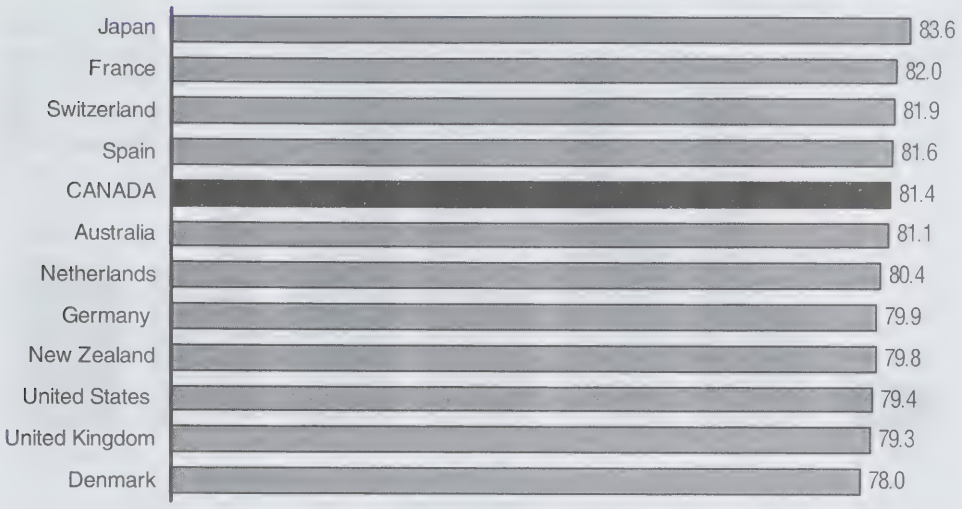
The life expectancy of women in Canada, though, is similar to that of women in other industrialized countries. In 1997, a female born in Canada could expect to live 81 years, compared with recent figures of 84 years in Japan, 82 in Switzerland and France, 81 in Australia, 79 in the United States, and 78 in Denmark. (Chart 3.4)

Lower death rates

The increase in women's life expectancy is a reflection of declines in mortality rates among women. The age-standardized death rate among women (that is, the death rate adjusted to remove the effect of the growth in the senior population) from all causes combined declined 14% between 1981 and 1997. In contrast, over the same

Chart 3.4

Life expectancy of females at birth in selected OECD countries, 1996



Sources: *Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 82-570-XPB; and Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development.*

period, the male death rate dropped by 20%. The female death rate at 522 deaths per 100,000 women in 1997, however, remains well below that of men, among whom there were 844 deaths per 100,000 population that year. (Table 3.14)

Heart diseases and cancer are the leading causes of death

Heart disease and cancer are the primary killers among Canadian women. In 1997, over 27,000 women died as a result of heart disease, while almost the same number died of cancer. Together, heart disease and cancer were responsible for over half of all deaths among women (52%).

The death rate from heart disease among women, however, has declined sharply in the past two decades. In fact, the age-standardized death rate from heart disease among women in 1997 was 36% lower than it has been in 1981. In contrast, there was almost no change in the cancer death rate in this period.

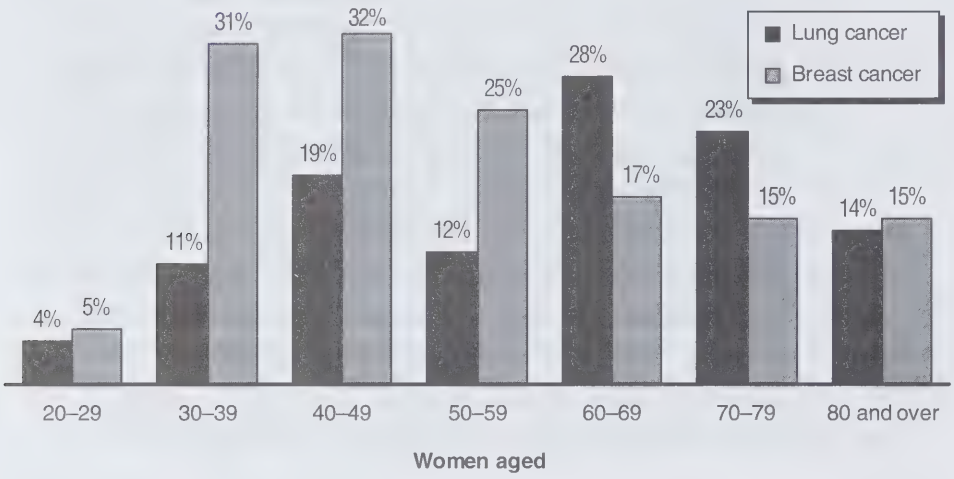
As well, death rates for both heart disease and cancer are much lower among women than among men. In 1997, there were 130 deaths from heart diseases for every 100,000 women, compared with 231 per 100,000 men. That same year, the age-standardized death rate for cancer was 149 for women, versus 230 for men.

The leading causes of death of women, however, vary by age. Women between the ages of 30 and 79 are most likely to die of cancer, while those aged 80 and over are most likely to succumb to heart disease. Women under age 30, on the other hand, are most likely to die in motor vehicle accidents. (Table 3.15)

Trends in lung and breast cancer among women

The leading cause of cancer deaths among women is lung cancer, followed by breast cancer. In 1997, lung cancer accounted for 21% of all female deaths from cancer, while breast cancer was responsible for 18%.

Percentage of cancer deaths of women from lung and breast cancer, by age, 1997



Source: *Statistics Canada, Health Statistics Division.*

Breast cancer, though, is the leading cause of cancer death among women under age 60. In 1997, breast cancer was responsible for over 30% of all cancer deaths among women between the ages of 30 and 49, and 25% of those in the 50-59 age group. Breast cancer was also the leading cause of cancer deaths in the 80 and over group, accounting for 15% of all cancer victims in that age range. In contrast, for women aged 60-69 and 70-79, lung cancer was the leading cause of cancer deaths in 1997, accounting for 28% and 23% of all cancer deaths, respectively. (Chart 3.5)

As well, the rate of female deaths from lung cancer is increasing. In 1999, there were an estimated 36 lung cancer deaths per 100,000 female population, up from 30 in 1991, and just 8 in 1970. In contrast, the female death rate from breast cancer has declined somewhat since the 1970s. There were an estimated 28 deaths per 100,000 women in 1999, compared with 31 in 1970. (Chart 3.6)

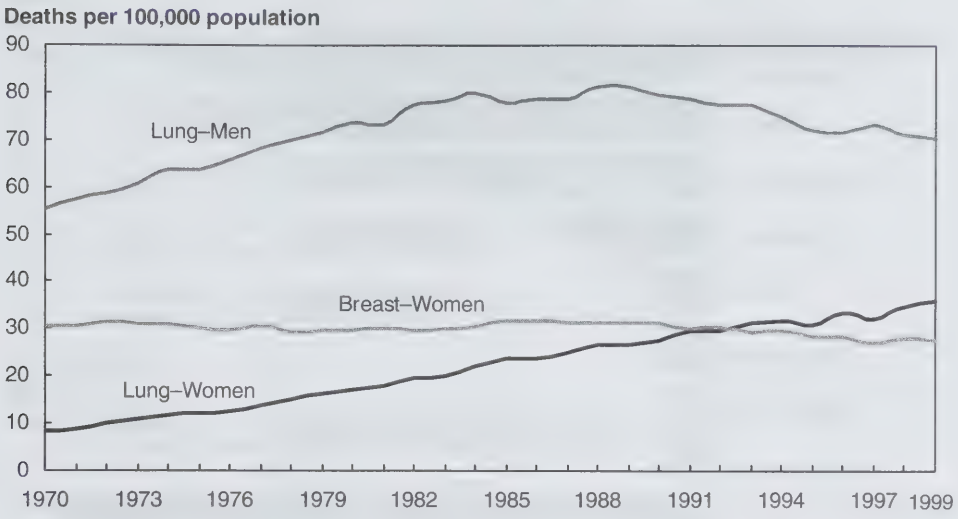
In addition, while the lung cancer death rate is rising in the female population, it has fallen among men since the late 1980s. Indeed, while the number of lung cancer deaths per 100,000 women rose 33% between 1989 and 1999, the rate among men fell 13%. This reflects the fact that smoking has been on the decline among men since the mid-1960s. On the other hand, the prevalence of smoking among women has fallen only slightly in the past 30 years. It should be noted, though, that the male death rate from lung cancer remains double the female rate.

Breast cancer: the leading form of cancer diagnosed among women

Breast cancer is a serious health problem for women. Indeed, it is the leading form of cancer diagnosed among women and its incidence has increased during the last decade. The upward trend is levelling off, however, and the death rate from this type of cancer is falling. Whether that is due to earlier scanning or improved treatments cannot yet be determined. It is estimated that there will be 106 new breast cancer cases per 100,000 women in 1999, up from 100 in 1991 and 86 cases in 1981. (Table 3.16)

Chart 3.6

Lung and breast cancer death rates, 1970-1999[1]



[1] *Rates are adjusted for the age distribution of the Canadian population in 1991. Figures for 1998 and 1999 are estimated rates.*

Source: *Health Canada, Cancer Bureau, LCDC.*

The incidence of lung cancer among women is rising even faster. It was estimated that in 1999, 45 new cases will be diagnosed for every 100,000 women, up from 24 such cases in 1981. As in the case of breast cancer, the probability of contracting lung cancer increases with age.

Although breast cancer is the most diagnosed type of cancer among young women, senior women are more likely to contract the disease. In fact, in 1999, the probability that a 30-year-old woman will develop breast cancer during the next 10 years was one in 250, compared with one in 31 for a woman 70 years of age.[11]

Contact with health care professionals

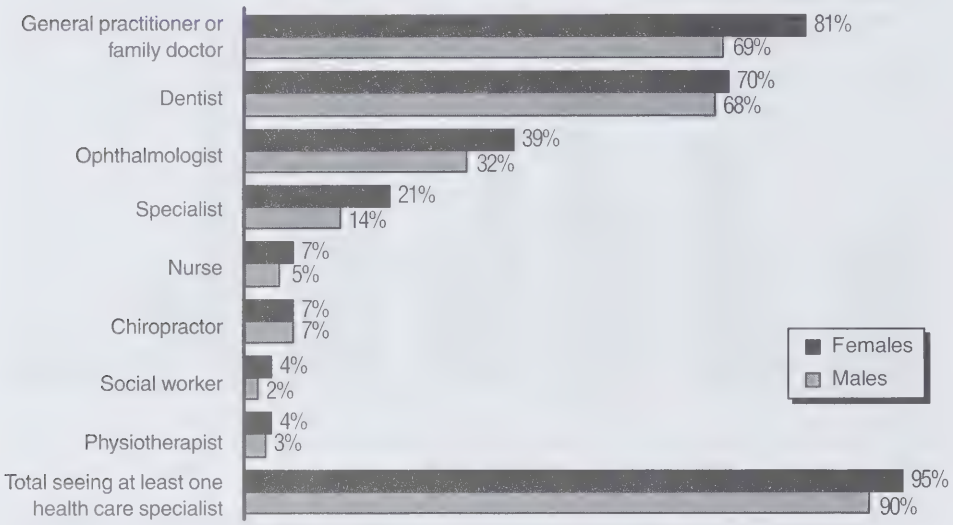
In general, almost all women visit at least one health care professional in the course of a year. In 1996-97, 95% of females aged 12 and over reported that they had consulted a health care professional at least once in the preceding 12 months, as did 90% of men. Of the professionals contacted by women, general practitioners and family physicians topped the list (81%), followed by dentists (70%), eye specialists (39%), and other physicians (21%), while other types of health professionals were consulted to a much lesser degree. (Chart 3.7)

As well, the majority of women see a doctor more than once within a year. In 1996-97, 68% of females aged 12 and over had consulted with a physician on two or more occasions in the previous 12 months. Women also tend to visit their doctor more often than men; that year, for example, only 51% of males aged 12 and over did so at least twice during the same period. (Table 3.17)

Since the incidence of health problems increases with age, it is not surprising that senior women are the group that consults doctors most frequently. In 1996-97, 80% of women aged 75 and over, and 75% of those aged 65-74, had visited a doctor at least twice, compared with around 70% or less of those in other age groups.

 Chart 3.7

Percentage of the population aged 12 and over who saw a health care professional, 1996-97



Source: *Statistics Canada, National Population Health Survey.*

Use of medications

A substantial proportion of women use medication. In 1996-97, just over one out of two females (51%) aged 12 and over reported taking some kind of prescription or non-prescription medication in the last two days preceding the survey.[9] In fact, women were more likely than their male counterparts to use medication: 51% versus 33%.

Pain killers are the most common type of medication used by women. In 1996-97, 70% of females aged 12 and over used painkillers in the month preceding the survey, while 18% used cough or cold remedies, 10% used blood pressure medication, another 10% took penicillin or other antibiotics, 9% used stomach remedies and 8% used allergy medicines. At the same time, a smaller proportion used asthma medication or thyroid medication (about 6% each) while less than 5% reported taking other types of medications. (Table 3.18)

In recent years, hormone replacement therapy has become available for the treatment of menopause-related problems.[12] In 1996-97, 11% of women aged 30 and over used hormones to combat the symptoms of menopause or aging. That year, 6% took estrogen, and 4% were on a combination of estrogen and progesterone, while around 1% took either progesterone alone or other hormones.[4]

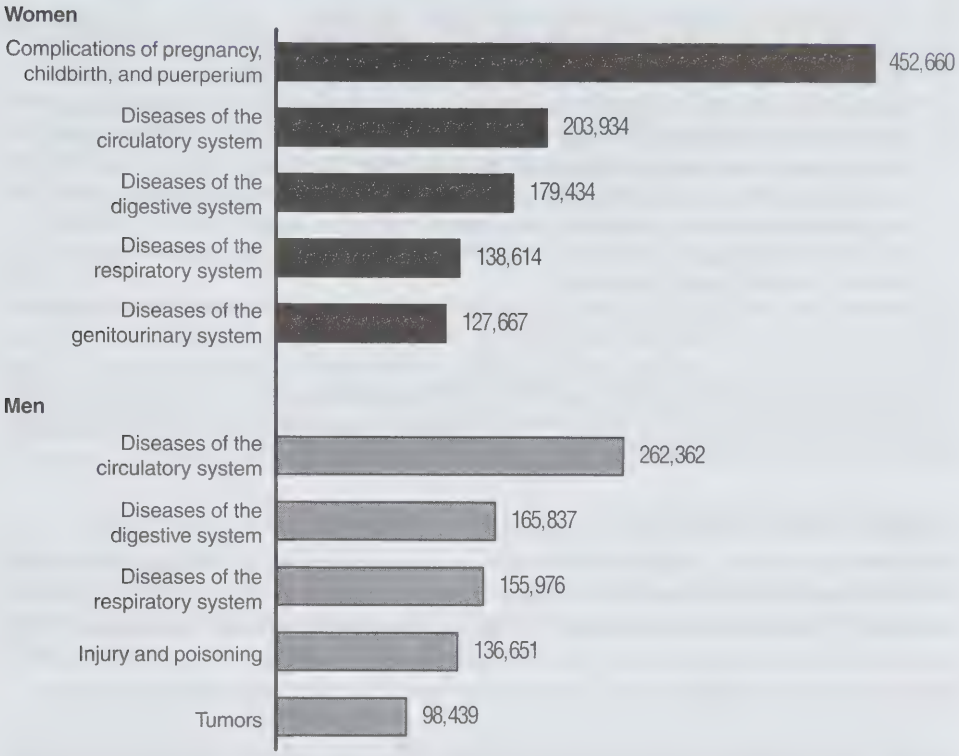
Hospitalization of women

In general, women are more likely to be hospitalized than men. In 1996-97, there were over 12,000 hospital separations[6] for every 100,000 females of all ages, compared with less than 9,000 per 100,000 males. (Table 3.19)

Women aged 75 and over are the segment of the female population most likely to be hospitalized. In 1996-97, there were over 37,000 separations per 100,000 women aged 75 and over, more than double the figure for women in every other age range except the 65-74 group. Senior women, however, were less likely to be hospitalized than senior men.

WOMEN IN CANADA Chart 3.8

Leading causes of hospital separations, 1997[1]



[1] *Does not include 10,734 separations from Ontario long-term care facilities that submit separation reports to the Ontario Chronic Care Patient System (OCCPS) and 21 separations for which the sex was unknown.*

Source: *Statistics Canada, Health Statistics Division.*

As well, senior women tend to remain in hospital for considerably longer periods than their younger counterparts. Indeed, women aged 75 and over stayed in hospital an average of 26 days per hospital visit, while women aged 65-74 averaged 15 days. In contrast, the figure was 10 days or less for women in other age groups. Senior women also stay in hospital longer than their male contemporaries. For example, women aged 75 and over averaged 26 days per hospital visit, compared with 19 days for men.

The gap between the hospitalization rates of women and men is largely attributable to the substantial number of childbirth-related hospitalizations of women of child-bearing age. In fact, in 1996-97, childbirth and complications of pregnancy, and puerperium were the leading causes of hospitalization among women. That year, there were over 450,000 such hospitalizations, accounting for 34% of all hospitalizations of women. (Chart 3.8)

Use of alternative health care

A growing proportion of women are resorting to alternative medicine in an effort to improve their health. In 1996-97, 8% of females aged 12 and over used at least one type of alternative health care, including services provided by massage therapists, homeopaths or naturopaths, acupuncturists, herbalists, reflexologists, spiritual healers or relaxation therapists, and other professionals. In fact, women were somewhat more likely than men to have used some form of alternative health care: 8% versus 5%. The alternative health care service most commonly used by women was massage therapy (4%), followed by homeopathy/naturopathy (2%) and acupuncture (1%). (Table 3.20)

Lifestyle habits are intrinsically linked to health. Smoking, for example, is routinely referred to as the number one preventable cause of disease and death. It is also worth noting that, for some preventive practices, there is a demonstrated relationship between the prevalence of the practice and certain socioeconomic factors, such as educational attainment and income. Consequently, some groups are at greater risk of poor health. For example, the Statistical Report on the Health of Canadians reported that the differences between university graduates and those who had not finished high school are often on the order of the latter group being at twice the level of risk of the former, and that this increases to three times in the regular use of bicycle helmets, and four times in smoking during pregnancy.

Women between the ages of 25 and 64 are the biggest users of alternative care. In 1996-97, roughly one out of 10 women in that age range had made use of alternative health services, compared with 6% or less of those in other age groups.

Breast cancer screening[13]

As previously noted, breast cancer is one of the leading causes of death in women, and its incidence continues to increase. Nevertheless, it is encouraging that early detection of breast cancer through mammograms and physical examinations has lowered the death rate among women aged 50-69.[14] The Canadian Cancer Society recommends that women in that age range have a mammogram every two years.

In fact, the majority of Canadian women have had a mammogram. In 1996-97, 60% of women aged 35 and over reported that they had had at least one mammogram in their lifetime. As well, nearly half of the women in this age range (46%) had undergone their most recent mammogram within the past year and 24% had had one between one and two years earlier, while 30% had had one more than two years earlier. (Table 3.21)

Of all women undergoing mammograms, those in the highest-risk age groups were most likely to have been tested. In 1996-97, 82% of women aged 50-59 and 75% in the 60-69 group had had a mammogram. Women in these groups were also the most likely to have received a mammogram within the recommended two-year period.

Breast examination by a health care professional is another common preventive practice. In 1996-97, 75% of women aged 18 and over had undergone this type of examination. Of these women, 67% had been examined within the past year, while 18% had been examined between one to two years earlier, and 14% had been seen more than two years before. (Table 3.22)

Although a majority of women in all age groups report having had a breast examination, women between the ages of 35 and 64 are the most likely to have ever had a breast examination. As of 1996-97, over 80% of women in these age ranges had had a breast exam, as had 77% of those aged 65-74 and 73% of those aged 25-34. In contrast, only 66% of senior women aged 75 and over, 57% of those aged 20-24, and 38% of 18- to 19-year-olds had ever been examined.

Pap tests[15]

It is recommended that sexually active women under 70 years of age receive a Pap smear test at least once every three years, since early diagnosis reduces the risk of death from cervical cancer. In 1996-97, 87% of women aged 18 and over reported that

they had undergone a Pap test at some point in their lives. Of these women, 83% had been screened within the recommended period, while the remaining 17% had been tested more than three years earlier. (Table 3.23)

Young women are the group most likely to have been tested within the specified period, and a substantial majority of them had done so in the previous 12 months. In 1996-97, the proportion of women under age 45 who had undergone a Pap test in the past year ranged from 88% of those in the 18-19 age group to 58% of those aged 45-54. In addition, about half of the women in the 55-64 age range had done so, while the figure was 37% among women aged 65-74 and 19% among those aged 75 and over.

Smoking[16]

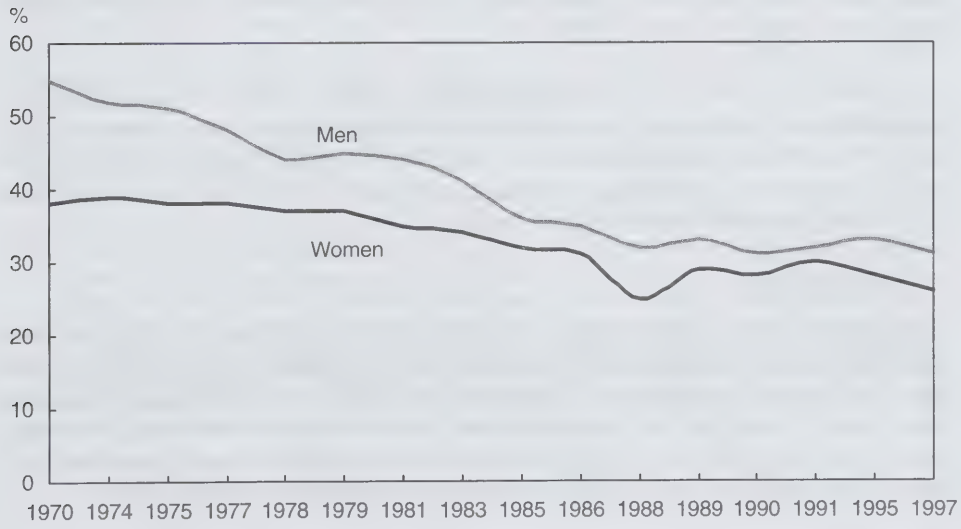
Smoking is a known risk factor for lung cancer, cardiovascular disease, and respiratory disease. Despite all the health warnings, in 1996-97, just over one in four (25%) females aged 12 and over were current smokers (that is, they smoked either daily or occasionally). At the same time, 26% of women were former smokers, and 48% said they had never smoked. The percentage of females who smoke, though, is less than that for males (25% versus 30%). (Table 3.24)

Young women are particularly likely to smoke cigarettes. In 1996-97, 34% of women aged 18-19 smoked, as did around 30% of both those aged 15-17 and those between the ages of 20 and 44. In contrast, the proportion of women smoking in older age groups ranged from 25% among those aged 45-54 to just 9% among those aged 75 and over.

Smoking has become less common among women since the 1970s. In 1996-97, 26% of women aged 15 and over smoked, down from 32% in 1985 and 37% in 1978. Among men, the prevalence of smoking decreased even more sharply, declining from 44% in 1978 to 31% in 1997. (Chart 3.9)

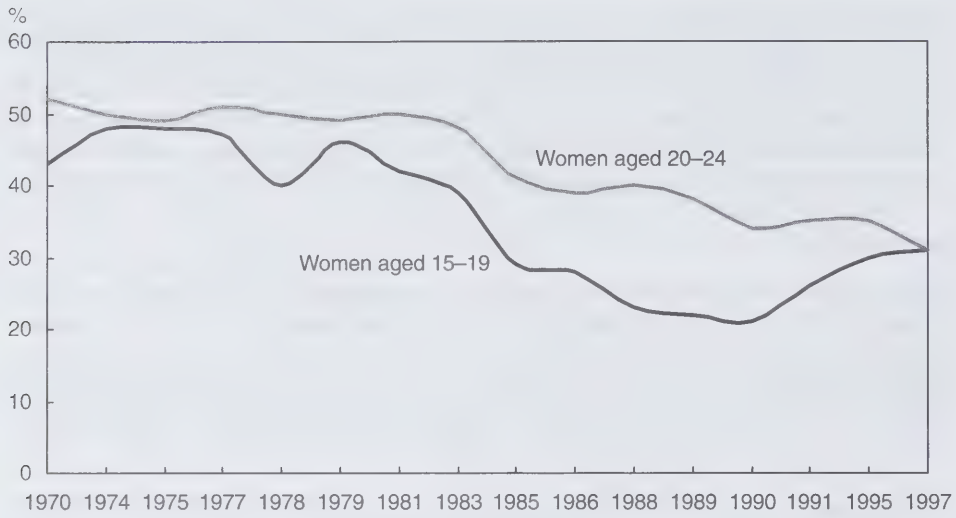
Chart 3.9

Percentage of the population aged 15 and over who were current smokers, 1970-1997



Sources: *Statistics Canada, National Population Health Survey and General Social Survey; and Health Canada, Canada's Health Promotion Survey.*

Percentage of women aged 15-24 who smoke, 1970-1997



Sources: *Statistics Canada, National Population Health Survey and General Social Survey; and Health Canada, Canada's Health Promotion Survey.*

It is also important to note that in contrast to the overall decline in smoking among women, the proportion of smokers in the female population aged 15-19 increased in the 1990s. In 1996-97, 31% of women aged 15-19 smoked, up from 21% in 1990. These figures are especially significant since there appears to be a relationship between the age at which a person begins smoking and his or her ability to quit. (Chart 3.10)

Alcohol consumption

Excessive alcohol use can also lead to problems of a social and health nature. In 1996-97, 43% of females aged 12 and over were regular drinkers; that is, in the previous year they had had at least one drink per month. On the other hand, 15% said they had never had a drink. In contrast, proportionally more males were drinkers (63%), while fewer were abstainers (9%). (Table 3.25)

Young women are the group most likely to drink regularly. In 1996-97, 59% of women aged 20-24 and 56% in the 18-19 age group drank regularly, compared with around 50% of those in age groups between 25 and 54, 41% of those aged 55-64, 34% of 64- to 74-year-olds, and 23% of those aged 75 and over. At all ages, however, proportionally fewer women than men drink regularly.

Physical activity

According to various studies, regular physical activity has beneficial effects on both physical and mental health and helps prevent heart disease and depression. Exercise also helps prevent osteoporosis, a bone disease that primarily affects women. Data from 1996-97 show that on the basis of their leisure-time activities during the three months preceding the survey, 17% of females aged 12 and over were considered very active, 23% were moderately active, and 60% were sedentary. (Table 3.26)

In general, young women are more active than their older counterparts. In 1996-97, roughly a third of the female population aged 12-17 and one in four of the 18-24 age range were very active, whereas the proportion of very active women in other age groups ranged between 17% among those between the ages of 25 and 44 to 7% among those aged 75 and over.

As well, regardless of age, women are less likely than their male contemporaries to be very active in their leisure time. In 1996-97, 17% of women aged 12 and over were very active, compared with 24% of men.

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1 *The sense of coherence scores reported here are based on the short version of that scale, which consists of 13 questions. 'High' scores are defined as 67 or greater (the approximate 70th percentile) on a scale of 4-78. Self-esteem, which is based on the standard scale for this attribute, is defined as high for scores of 20 or more out of a possible 24, while mastery, based on seven questions, is treated as high when the score is 23 or more out of a maximum of 28. These cut points are based on peaks in the distribution of scores and should not be interpreted as having any clinical significance.*

2 *For more information on this topic, see "Depression" by Marie P. Beaudet, in* Health Reports, *Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 82-003-XPB, Spring 1996.*

3 *Depression scores were based on direct (non-proxy) responses to 27 questions and a scoring algorithm that establishes the probability of suffering a major depressive episode. Individuals classified here as depressed have at least a 90% probability of such an episode.*

4 *Source : Statistics Canada, Health Statistics Division.*

5 *For more information on suicide rates among Aboriginal women, see Chapter 11.*

6 *A hospital separation refers to the discharge or death of an in-patient. The number of separations does not equal the number of patients, since an individual may be hospitalized more than once.*

7 *For more information on this topic, see "Chronic pain" by Wayne J. Millar, in* Health Reports, *Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 82-003-XPB, Spring 1996.*

8 *Source : Health Canada, Health Protection Branch, Division of STD Control/BCDE/LCDC.*

9 *Source: Statistics Canada, Statistical Report on the Health of Canadians, Catalogue no. 82-570-XPB.*

10 *The first abortion clinics were opened in Quebec in 1978. Before the January 1988 Supreme Court decision to strike down the 1969 abortion law, abortion clinics operated only in Quebec. By the end of 1994, abortion clinics were operating in all provinces except Prince Edward Island and Saskatchewan (but not in the two territories).*

11 *Source: National Cancer Institute of Canada, 1999 Canadian Cancer Statistics.*

12 *For more information on this topic, see "Characteristics of women on hormone replacement therapy" by Marie P. Beaudet, Wikke Walop and Christel Le Petit, in* Health Reports, *Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 82-003-XPB, Autumn 1997; Francine Légaré, "Hormonothérapie, la valse hésitation", in* La Gazette des femmes, *vol. 20, no.1, pp. 39-40.*

13 *For more information on this topic, see "Who doesn't get a mammogram?" by Jane F. Gentleman and Judy Lee, in* Health Reports, *Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 82-003-XPB, Summer 1997; "Trends in mammography utilization, 1981 to 1994" by Leslie A. Gaudette, Chris A. Altmayer, Karla M.P. Nobrega and Judy Lee, in* Health Reports, *Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 82-003-XPB, Winter 1996.*

14 *Source: Health Canada, Medical Research Council of Canada, National Cancer Institute of Canada, Canadian Cancer Society, Canadian Breast Cancer Foundation,* Report on the National Forum on Breast Cancer, *Ottawa, Supply and Services Canada, 1994.*

15 *For more information on this topic, see "Falling short of Pap test guidelines" by Judy Lee, Greg F. Parsons and Jane F. Gentleman, in* Health Reports, *Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 82-003-XPB, Summer 1998.*

16 *For more information on this topic, see "Smoking prevalence, quit attempts and successes" by Megan Stephens and Jason Siroonian, in* Health Reports, *Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 82-003-XPB, Spring 1998; "Age of smoking initiation: implications for quitting" by Jiajan Chen and Wayne J. Millar, in* Health Reports, *Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 82-003-XPB, Spring 1998; "Attitudes toward smoking" by Nancy Ross and Claudio Pérez, in* Health Reports, *Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 82-003-XPB, Winter 1998; "Environmental Tobacco Smoke Exposure Patterns: A Subanalysis of the Canadian Human Time-Activity Pattern Survey" by Judith A. Leech, Keri Wilby, and Edmund McMullen, in* Canadian Journal of Public Health, *vol. 90, no. 4, July-August 1999.*

 Table 3.1

Self-reported health status, by age, 1996-97

	% describing their health as					
	Excellent	Very good	Good	Fair	Poor	Total
People aged						
12-14						
Females	26	43	27	3	*	100.0
Males	37	39	22	2	*	100.0
15-17						
Women	20	45	27	6	*	100.0
Men	36	41	20	3	*	100.0
18-19						
Women	22	49	26	3	*	100.0
Men	29	51	17	3	*	100.0
20-24						
Women	30	43	24	3	*	100.0
Men	38	37	21	3	*	100.0
25-34						
Women	31	41	23	5	1	100.0
Men	30	44	21	4	1	100.0
35-44						
Women	27	40	26	5	1	100.0
Men	26	42	26	5	1	100.0
45-54						
Women	23	38	27	9	2	100.0
Men	25	39	26	7	2	100.0
55-64						
Women	18	34	31	12	5	100.0
Men	20	32	31	12	5	100.0
65-74						
Women	13	28	41	13	4	100.0
Men	14	30	34	17	6	100.0
75 and over						
Women	11	26	35	21	7	100.0
Men	9	26	39	17	8	100.0
Total						
Females	24	38	27	8	2	100.0
Males	26	39	26	7	2	100.0

* *Data omitted due to high sampling variability.*

Source: *Statistics Canada, National Population Health Survey.*

Table 3.2

Three indicators of psychological well-being, by age, 1994-95

	% reporting high levels of		
	Self-confidence	Control of situation	Sense of coherence[1]
People aged			
12-14			
Females	38	*	*
Males	34	9	*
15-17			
Women	35	14	*
Men	47	18	*
18-19			
Women	42	18	*
Men	40	22	12
20-24			
Women	45	20	15
Men	48	25	16
25-34			
Women	50	24	25
Men	51	25	23
35-44			
Women	51	22	26
Men	54	24	28
45-54			
Women	55	21	31
Men	52	24	30
55-64			
Women	50	17	28
Men	48	22	39
65-74			
Women	49	16	43
Men	44	19	44
75 and over			
Women	45	17	38
Men	43	14	39
Total			
Females	49	19	28
Males	49	22	29

* *Data omitted due to high sampling variability.*

[1] *Includes only people aged 18 and over.*

Source: *Statistics Canada, National Population Health Survey.*

Average number of weeks of depression episodes in the last 52 weeks of people aged 12 and over who suffer from depression,[1] by age, 1996-97

	Number of depression episode weeks during the last 52 weeks[1]				
	2-4	5-11	12-26	27-52	Average
			%		
People aged					
12-14					
Females	62	*	*	*	4.4
Males	*	*	*	*	4.7
15-17					
Women	40	25	*	*	5.0
Men	77	*	*	*	5.0
18-19					
Women	70	*	*	*	5.4
Men	*	*	*	*	5.3
20-24					
Women	37	33	26	*	6.0
Men	55	*	*	*	6.4
25-34					
Women	37	34	20	9	6.3
Men	54	19	18	9	6.0
35-44					
Women	34	27	29	11	6.9
Men	42	27	17	13	6.8
45-54					
Women	24	21	36	19	7.7
Men	41	25	13	22	8.0
55-64					
Women	32	11	29	28	8.1
Men	51	*	*	*	8.9
65-74					
Women	31	*	*	*	9.0
Men	*	*	*	*	9.2
75 and over					
Women	*	*	*	*	10.0
Men	*	*	*	*	10.8
Total					
Females	36	26	24	14	7.0
Males	51	21	16	12	8.0

* *Data omitted due to high sampling variability.*

[1] *The question was only asked of people who felt sad, demoralized, depressed or suicidal.*

Source: *Statistics Canada, National Population Health Survey.*

Table 3.4

Hospital separations for mental health reasons,[1] by age, 1995-96

	Females		Males	
	Number of separations	Separations per 100,000 population	Number of separations	Separations per 100,000 population
People aged				
Under 15	3,076	105.08	3,196	104.15
15-19	7,528	775.96	5,613	550.5
20-24	6,313	624.83	7,317	703.36
25-34	20,876	860.09	21,293	855.2
35-44	25,457	1,029.29	22,702	911.29
45-64	25,502	815.63	21,109	677.82
65-74	9,251	814.57	7,416	773.87
75 and over	14,625	1,570.43	8,752	1,567.57
Total	**112,628**	**750.76**	**97,398**	**660.76**

[1] *Includes separations in psychiatric and general hospitals for mental health reasons. There were 10 separations in 1995-96 involving people for whom the sex was not identified.*

Source: *Statistics Canada, Health Statistics Division.*

Percentage of the population diagnosed with selected chronic health conditions, by age, 1996-97

	Non-food product allergies	Food allergies	Arthritis or rheumatism	Back problems	High blood pressure	Migraines	Asthma	Total with at least one chronic problem
				%				
People aged								
12-14								
Females	20	6	*	*	*	4	12	33
Males	23	6	*	*	*	3	12	37
15-17								
Women	30	13	*	9	*	8	16	51
Men	25	4	*	5	*	3	13	40
18-19								
Women	26	10	*	10	*	9	15	46
Men	28	5	*	4	*	*	14	41
20-24								
Women	30	9	4	12	*	10	11	52
Men	27	6	1	7	*	4	7	42
25-34								
Women	28	9	5	13	1	15	9	55
Men	23	5	3	13	1	5	6	46
35-44								
Women	27	7	10	15	4	14	7	57
Men	19	7	6	15	5	6	4	49
45-54								
Women	25	8	20	19	13	15	7	66
Men	14	5	11	17	11	5	4	54
55-64								
Women	26	9	36	20	24	10	7	77
Men	12	4	20	20	21	3	3	66
65-74								
Women	23	8	46	18	34	6	6	82
Men	11	3	32	15	28	2	6	77
75 and over								
Women	18	7	54	19	40	4	6	89
Men	9	4	37	14	26	1	5	81
Total								
Females	26	9	18	15	11	11	8	62
Males	19	5	10	13	9	4	6	52

* *Data omitted due to high sampling variability.*

Source: *Statistics Canada, National Population Health Survey.*

Table 3.6

Percentage of the population experiencing chronic pain, by age and intensity of pain, 1994-95

	Total experiencing chronic pain	Degree of chronic pain		
		Light	Moderate	Intense
		%		
Women aged				
15-24	13	33	60	7
25-44	15	31	56	13
45-64	24	23	58	19
65 and over	34	26	55	19
Total	**20**	**27**	**57**	**16**
Men aged				
15-24	8	52	38	9
25-44	12	35	54	11
45-64	18	26	54	20
65 and over	27	36	48	17
Total	**15**	**34**	**52**	**15**

Source: *Statistics Canada, National Population Health Survey.*

 Table 3.7

Proportion of the population engaging in high risk sexual behaviour,[1] by age, 1996-97

	% using a condom with a sexual partner of less than 12 months[2]			% with three or more sexual partners in the last year[3]
	Occasionally	Never	Not the last time	
People aged				
18-19				
Women	*	*	27	8
Men	*	*	25	16
20-24				
Women	7	11	27	6
Men	14	8	21	11
25-34				
Women	7	9	20	2
Men	9	8	17	6
35-44				
Women	*	11	12	1
Men	8	9	18	3
45-49				
Women	*	*	*	*
Men	*	11	16	2
50-59				
Women	*	6	6	*
Men	*	8	9	1
Total 18-59				
Women	5	9	16	2
Men	8	8	16	5

* *Data omitted due to high sampling variability.*

1 *Based on the percentage of people who have had sexual relationships.*

2 *Refers to the percentage of people who have this type of relationship. The rate of non-response was close to 50%.*

3 *Refers to the percentage of people who have had a sexual relationship in the last year. The rate of non-response was 12%.*

Source: *Statistics Canada, National Population Health Survey.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 3.8

Rates for reported sexually transmitted diseases, by age, 1991 and 1998

	Cases per 100,000 population											
	Women						Men					
	Gonococcal infections		Chlamydia infections		Syphilis[2]		Gonococcal infections		Chlamydia infections		Syphilis[2]	
	1991	1998	1991	1997[1]	1993	1998	1991	1998	1991	1997[1]	1993	1998
People aged												
15-19	115.0	68.0	1,550.0	971.6	1.2	0.4	58.5	26.6	235.5	145.6	0.3	0.1
20-24	92.0	47.0	1,386.7	914.9	2.2	0.5	106.8	52.7	480.2	315.9	1.8	0.4
25-29	36.4	18.7	430.5	316.5	1.0	0.9	69.9	43.1	208.8	160.6	1.4	0.8
30-39	13.0	6.2	109.5	80.7	0.6	0.9	33.4	28.2	66.0	58.5	1.0	1.3
40-59	2.9	1.1	16.8	13.1	0.3	0.2	10.7	8.9	13.6	12.4	0.9	1.0
60 and over	0.2	0.1	2.5	1.2	0.2	0.1	2.1	1.3	2.0	1.0	0.2	0.2

[1] *The most recent data available is from 1997.*
[2] *Includes all reported types of syphilis, except congenital.*
Source: *Health Canada, Health Protection Branch, Division of STD Control/BCDE/LCDC.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 3.9

People diagnosed with AIDS between 1989 and 1998, by age at the time of diagnosis,[1] 1999

	Women		Men	
	Number of cases	%	Number of cases	%
People aged				
15-19	10	0.9	46	0.3
20-24	319	28.2	2,385	16.0
25-29	442	39.1	6,679	44.8
30-39	198	17.5	4,152	27.8
40-49	161	14.2	1,655	11.1
50 and over	–	–	–	–
Total	**1,130**	**100.0**	**14,917**	**100.0**

[1] *There were also 88 female and 99 male children under the age of 15 diagnosed with AIDS in this period.*
Source: *Health Canada, Division of HIV/AIDS Epidemiology.*

New cases of AIDS, by year of diagnosis,[1] 1989-1998

	People aged 15 and over			Children under age 15	
	Women	Men	Women as % of total	Female	Male
1989	79	1,295	5.7	4	8
1990	65	1,347	4.6	5	6
1991	97	1,434	6.3	6	7
1992	109	1,582	6.4	5	13
1993	116	1,621	6.7	10	4
1994	128	1,552	7.6	10	8
1995	126	1,399	8.3	11	14
1996	113	871	11.4	6	9
1997	70	418	14.3	5	5
1998	37	240	13.4	1	1

[1] *Due to delays and underreporting, the number of AIDS cases diagnosed during any period of time, especially in recent years, often exceeds the number of AIDS cases actually reported.*

Source: *Health Canada, Division of HIV/AIDS Epidemiology.*

 Table 3.11

Therapeutic abortions,[1] 1975-1995

	Performed in hospitals[1]			Performed in clinics[2]		
	Number	Number per 1,000 women aged 15-44	Number per 100 live births to women aged 15-44	Number	Number per 1,000 women aged 15-44	Number per 100 live births to women aged 15-44
1975	49,311	9.6	13.7	..	..	..
1976	54,478	10.3	15.1	..	..	..
1977	57,564	10.6	15.9	..	..	..
1978	62,290	11.3	17.4	2,618	0.5	0.7
1979	65,043	11.6	17.8	3,629	0.6	1.0
1980	65,751	11.5	17.7	4,704	0.8	1.3
1981	65,053	11.1	17.5	4,207	0.7	1.1
1982	66,254	11.1	17.8	4,506	0.7	1.2
1983	61,750	10.2	16.5	3,635	0.6	1.0
1984	62,247	10.2	16.5	3,571	0.6	0.9
1985	62,712	10.2	16.7	3,706	0.6	1.0
1986	63,462	10.2	17.0	3,498	0.6	0.9
1987	63,585	10.2	17.2	3,681	0.7	1.0
1988	66,137	10.6	17.6	4,617	0.7	1.2
1989	70,705	11.2	18.0	7,059	1.1	1.8
1990	71,092	11.2	17.5	20,236	3.2	5.0
1991[3]	70,277	10.9	17.5	23,343	3.6	5.8
1992	70,408	10.4	17.7	31,151	4.6	7.8
1993	72,434	10.6	18.7	31,508	4.6	8.1
1994	71,630	10.5	18.6	34,287	5.0	8.9
1995	70,549	10.3	18.7	35,650	5.2	9.4

1 *Includes only therapeutic abortions performed on Canadian residents in Canadian hospitals.*

2 *Prior to 1990, the data are for Quebec only. For 1990, the data are for six provinces (Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, Quebec, Ontario, Manitoba and British Columbia). Data for 1991-95 include Alberta, and data for 1994 and 1995 include New Brunswick.*

3 *Figures underreported for British Columbia.*

Source: *Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 82-219-XPB.*

Therapeutic abortion rates,[1] by age, 1975-1995

	Therapeutic abortions per 1,000 females aged							
	13-14	15-17	18-19	20-24	25-29	30-34	35-39	40-44[2]
1975	1.3	10.9	16.7	13.8	10.0	6.8	4.9	2.4
1976	1.4	11.3	18.2	15.1	10.9	7.4	5.0	2.5
1977	1.5	11.8	19.2	15.9	11.2	7.5	4.9	2.4
1978	1.3	12.2	21.1	17.2	11.9	7.8	5.0	2.4
1979	1.5	12.8	21.7	18.1	12.2	7.9	4.8	2.1
1980	1.4	12.7	21.8	18.2	12.1	7.9	4.5	2.1
1981	1.4	12.0	21.1	18.0	11.9	7.7	4.4	1.9
1982	1.4	11.7	21.1	18.5	12.0	7.9	4.5	1.9
1983	1.3	10.6	18.8	17.3	11.2	7.5	4.4	1.7
1984	1.2	10.7	18.8	17.5	11.5	7.5	4.5	1.6
1985	1.4	10.4	19.7	17.8	11.5	7.6	4.5	1.7
1986	1.1	10.6	20.5	18.2	11.6	7.8	4.5	1.6
1987	1.2	10.3	21.1	18.6	12.0	7.8	4.6	1.6
1988	1.1	10.4	21.9	19.9	12.7	8.1	4.8	1.7
1989	1.1	12.5	22.9	21.4	13.8	8.8	5.4	1.8
1990	1.3	10.4	22.5	21.9	14.0	9.1	5.4	1.7
1991	1.0	10.4	21.8	21.6	13.9	9.1	5.5	1.7
1992	1.1	9.9	20.3	20.6	13.3	8.7	5.3	1.8
1993	1.2	10.2	20.6	21.0	13.7	8.9	5.3	1.9
1994	1.0	10.1	21.8	21.2	13.6	8.5	5.3	1.8
1995	1.9[3]	9.1	21.3	20.9	13.8	8.5	5.3	1.9

[1] *Includes only therapeutic abortions performed for Canadian residents in Canadian hospitals.*
[2] *Includes therapeutic abortions performed on women aged 45 and over at the time of termination of pregnancy.*
[3] *Rates based on those aged 14.*
Source: *Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 82-219-XPB.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 3.13

Life expectancy at selected ages, 1921-1997

	Life expectancy in years							
	At birth		At age 20		At age 40		At age 65	
	Females	Males	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
1921	60.6	58.8	49.1	48.9	32.7	32.1	13.6	13.0
1931	62.1	60.0	49.8	49.1	33.0	32.0	13.7	13.0
1941	66.3	63.0	51.8	49.6	34.0	31.9	14.1	12.8
1951	70.9	66.4	54.4	50.8	35.7	32.4	15.0	13.3
1961	74.3	68.4	56.7	51.5	37.4	33.0	16.1	13.6
1971	76.4	69.4	58.3	51.8	39.1	33.3	17.6	13.8
1981	79.1	71.9	60.2	53.4	40.8	34.7	18.9	14.6
1991	80.9	74.6	61.7	55.6	42.2	36.8	19.9	15.7
1996	81.4	75.7	62.1	56.6	42.6	37.7	20.2	16.3
1997	81.4	75.8	62.1	56.7	42.5	37.7	20.0	16.2

Sources: *Statistics Canada, Catalogue nos. 89-506-XPB, 91-209-XPB and 82-570-XPB, and Health Statistics Division.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 3.14

Total deaths and age-standardized death rates, by selected causes, 1981 and 1997

	Women				Men			
	1981		1997		1981		1997	
	Total deaths	Deaths per 100,000 females	Total deaths	Deaths per 100,000 females	Total deaths	Deaths per 100,000 males	Total deaths	Deaths per 100,000 males
Cancer								
Lung cancer	2,170	17.9	5,713	32.3	7,147	73.1	9,726	69.8
Breast cancer	3,604	30.1	4,946	27.4	...	...	38	0.3
Colorectal cancer	2,616	21.5	2,886	15.2	2,670	29.2	3,216	23.5
Total all cancers	**17,974**	**148.8**	**27,148**	**148.5**	**22,440**	**238.9**	**31,555**	**229.7**
Heart disease	24,754	202.7	27,268	129.7	33,633	379.2	30,149	230.8
Cerebrovascular disease	8,244	67.4	9,376	43.9	6,601	80.8	6,675	52.8
Respiratory disease	3,980	32.5	9,425	44.8	6,999	84.3	10,611	85.7
Chronic liver disease and cirrhosis	874	7.3	720	4.2	2,713	17.3	1,310	8.9
Motor vehicle accidents	1,391	10.7	945	6.1	4,054	31.2	2,110	14.5
Total all causes	**73,974**	**606.1**	**103,684**	**521.6**	**97,055**	**1,051.8**	**111,985**	**844.0**

Source: *Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 84-209-XPB, and Health Statistics Division.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 3.15

Deaths per 100,000 females, by age and selected causes, 1997

	Deaths per 100,000 females aged								
	Under 20	20-29	30-39	40-49	50-59	60-69	70-79	80 and over	Total
Cancer									
Lung cancer	*	0.2	2.3	13.8	49.2	127.8	188.1	175.1	37.3
Breast cancer	*	0.3	6.3	24.0	50.6	79.4	122.0	196.6	32.3
Colorectal cancer	0.1	0.2	0.8	5.0	17.1	43.2	82.9	183.4	18.9
Total all cancers	**2.8**	**5.7**	**20.6**	**74.1**	**198.5**	**461.8**	**805.9**	**1,272.8**	**177.4**
Heart disease	1.3	1.0	3.3	13.1	45.3	182.8	660.0	2,898.1	178.2
Cerebrovascular disease	0.2	0.5	2.9	6.3	14.0	51.9	194.4	1,066.2	61.3
Respiratory disease	1.1	1.1	1.5	4.5	15.2	64.7	218.8	1,007.9	61.6
Chronic liver disease and cirrhosis	*	0.1	1.0	3.2	6.0	16.7	20.9	16.9	4.7
Motor vehicle accidents	5.4	7.6	4.2	4.5	6.0	7.2	11.5	10.8	6.2
Total all causes	**43.2**	**35.0**	**61.7**	**147.4**	**353.3**	**982.8**	**2,483.5**	**8,998.4**	**677.5**

* *Data omitted due to high sampling variability.*
Source: *Statistics Canada, Health Statistics Division.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 3.16

Age-standardized incidence rates[1] for selected cancers among women, 1981-1999

	1981		1986		1991		1999[2]	
	Number of cases	Rate per 100,000 women	Number of cases	Rate per 100,000 women	Number of cases	Rate per 100,000 women	Number of cases	Rate per 100,000 women
Breast	10,142	86.1	11,702	88.2	15,024	99.8	18,700	105.5
Colorectal	5,740	47.6	6,590	47.4	6,917	43.5	7,800	39.1
Lung	2,918	24.1	4,299	31.6	5,726	37.5	8,500	45.4
Uterine	2,638	21.7	2,650	19.5	2,882	19.0	3,400	18.5
Cervical	1,610	14.0	1,406	10.9	1,406	9.7	1,500	8.3
Ovarian	1,838	15.3	1,783	13.2	2,042	13.6	2,600	13.9
Total all cancers[3]	**39,078**	**326.6**	**43,950**	**324.3**	**51,622**	**336.9**	**62,800**	**343.1**

[1] *Standardized to the 1991 Canadian population.*
[2] *Estimated figures.*
[3] *Excludes non-melanoma skin cancer.*
Source: *National Cancer Institute of Canada,* Cancer Incidence in Canada.

 Table 3.17

Percentage of population consulting selected health care professionals, by age and frequency, 1996-97

	% of total population who saw a health professional	% of population consulting medical professionals by number consulted		
		0	1	2+
People aged				
12-14				
Females	96	20	26	53
Males	94	29	30	41
15-17				
Women	97	18	24	59
Men	94	25	25	50
18-19				
Women	96	15	23	62
Men	84	31	23	45
20-24				
Women	95	12	19	69
Men	84	36	25	39
25-34				
Women	96	10	18	71
Men	85	34	22	44
35-44				
Women	95	15	21	64
Men	89	30	24	45
45-54				
Women	95	14	20	66
Men	91	25	25	50
55-64				
Women	96	11	19	71
Men	90	19	20	62
65-74				
Women	95	10	15	75
Men	94	13	15	72
75 and over				
Women	97	8	12	80
Men	97	6	11	83
Total				
Females	95	13	19	68
Males	90	27	23	51

Source: *Statistics Canada, National Population Health Survey.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 3.18

Percentage of people aged 12 and over taking selected medications in the past month, 1996-97

	Females	Males	Total
		%	
Pain relievers	69.7	58.0	63.9
Tranquillizers	3.3	2.0	2.6
Anti-depressants	4.5	2.4	3.4
Codeine, Demerol or morphine	5.2	4.0	4.6
Sleeping pills	3.9	2.8	3.4
Blood pressure medication	10.2	7.6	8.9
Other heart medication	4.0	4.4	4.3
Cough or cold remedies	18.0	17.4	17.7
Penicillin/other antibiotics	10.1	6.9	8.5
Asthma medication	6.0	4.4	5.2
Allergy medicines	8.4	6.6	7.5
Insulin	0.8	1.2	1.0
Pills to control diabetes	1.7	2.1	1.9
Thyroid medication	5.8	1.5	3.7
Diuretics or water pills	4.0	1.9	3.0
Stomach remedies	8.8	7.9	8.4
Laxatives	4.0	1.8	2.9
Diet pills	1.4	0.3	0.4

Source: *Statistics Canada, National Population Health Survey.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 3.19

Separation rates for general hospitals and other related establishments, by age, 1996-97

	Separations per 100,000 population		Average number of days spent in hospital per separation	
	Females	Males	Females	Males
People aged				
Under 1 year	18,605.5	25,068.4	5.6	5.4
1-4	5,149.5	6,796.5	3.4	3.0
5-14	2,613.0	2,968.8	4.4	4.5
15-19	7,689.5	3,517.4	4.2	6.0
20-24	13,081.1	3,479.1	3.5	7.2
25-34	16,192.3	3,817.0	3.8	7.0
35-44	8,950.0	5,170.5	6.1	7.5
45-64	10,159.2	10,790.4	9.6	8.9
65-74	20,338.1	27,135.3	14.7	13.0
75 and over	37,159.1	47,840.1	26.4	18.8
Total[1]	**12,278.9**	**8,991.9**	**10.7**	**10.7**

[1] *Total includes data for the 24 separations of male patients and the 15 separations of female patients for whom the age was unknown. The table excludes data for 21 separations for patients whom the sex was not identified.*

Source: *Statistics Canada, Health Statistics Division.*

Proportion of the population using alternative health care, by age, 1996-97

	% consulting			
	Any alternative therapy	Massotherapist	Homoeopath or naturopath	Acupuncturist
People aged				
15-19				
Women	6	3	*	*
Men	*	*	*	*
20-24				
Women	6	4	*	*
Men	4	3	*	*
25-34				
Women	11	6	2	1
Men	6	3	1	1
35-44				
Women	11	6	2	1
Men	7	3	1	1
45-54				
Women	10	5	2	1
Men	5	2	1	1
55-64				
Women	10	4	1	2
Men	3	1	*	1
65-74				
Women	5	1	1	2
Men	2	1	*	*
75 and over				
Women	5	1	*	*
Men	4	*	*	*
Total				
Women	8	4	2	1
Men	5	2	1	1

* *Data omitted due to high sampling variability.*

Source: *Statistics Canada, National Population Health Survey.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 3.21

Percentage of women who had mammograms over the last two years, by age, timing and reason for the most recent mammogram, 1996-97

		% tested within time period of[1]			Reason for mammogram[2]		
	% tested	Less than a year	1-2 years	2+ years	Evaluation or routine check	Family history	Discovered lump
				%			
Women aged							
35-39	25	32	15	52	61	15	27
40-49	56	41	24	36	75	9	12
50-59	82	55	26	19	81	6	8
60-69	75	52	26	22	79	7	8
70 and over	65	40	21	39	77	8	5
Total 35 and over	**60**	**46**	**24**	**30**	**77**	**8**	**10**

[1] *Includes women who have had a breast examination.*
[2] *Includes women who reported having had a mammographic exam in the last two years. Multiple answers were permitted.*
Source: *Statistics Canada, National Population Health Survey.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 3.22

Percentage of women receiving a breast examination by a health professional, by age, timing and reason for the most recent examination, 1996-97

		% tested within time period of[1]			Reason for examination[2]		
	% tested	Less than a year	1-2 years	2+ years	Evaluation or routine check	Family history	Discovered lump
				%			
Women aged							
18-19	38	86	10	*	97	*	*
20-24	57	73	18	9	95	4	3
25-34	73	69	18	13	93	4	4
35-44	83	65	20	14	91	5	5
45-54	83	69	19	12	88	7	7
55-64	82	66	18	15	85	6	7
65-74	77	64	15	20	89	5	4
75 and over	66	58	17	23	88	5	3
Total	**75**	**67**	**18**	**14**	**90**	**5**	**5**

* *Data omitted due to high sampling variability.*
[1] *Includes women who have had a breast examination by a health professional.*
[2] *Includes women who have had a breast examination by a health professional in the last two years. Multiple answers were permitted.*
Source: *Statistics Canada, National Population Health Survey.*

Table 3.23

Percentage of women receiving a Pap smear test, by age and timing of the most recent test, 1996-97

	% tested		% tested within time period of[1]		
	Yes	No	Less than a year	1-3 years	3+ years
			%		
Women aged					
18-19	51	49	88	10	*
20-24	74	26	79	19	2
25-34	92	8	73	21	6
35-44	93	7	61	28	11
45-54	94	6	58	25	18
55-64	90	10	50	24	26
65-74	84	16	37	23	40
75 and over	67	33	19	22	59
Total	**87**	**13**	**59**	**24**	**17**

* *Data omitted due to high sampling variability.*

[1] *Includes women who reported having had a Pap smear test.*

Source: *Statistics Canada, National Population Health Survey.*

 Table 3.24

Smoking status, by age, 1996-97

	Current smoker	Former smoker	Never smoked	Average number of cigarettes smoked per day
			%	
People aged				
12-14				
Females	10	15	75	8
Males	6	13	80	11
15-17				
Women	29	22	49	11
Men	22	19	59	13
18-19				
Women	34	19	46	12
Men	36	14	50	14
20-24				
Women	31	22	47	13
Men	38	18	43	15
25-34				
Women	31	25	44	15
Men	36	19	45	18
35-44				
Women	30	27	43	17
Men	37	29	34	20
45-54				
Women	25	29	45	18
Men	31	38	30	21
55-64				
Women	21	29	49	17
Men	26	47	26	21
65-74				
Women	15	30	55	16
Men	20	55	25	18
75 and over				
Women	9	27	63	14
Men	13	60	26	17
Total				
Females	25	26	48	16
Males	30	31	39	19

Source: *Statistics Canada, National Population Health Survey.*

 Table 3.25

Proportion of the population consuming alcohol, by age and quantity of alcohol consumed per week, 1996-97

	Type of drinker		Number of drinks per week[1]			
	Regular	Abstainer	Less than 1	1-6	7-13	14+
			%			
People aged						
12-14						
Females	4	62	60	*	*	*
Males	6	59	65	*	*	*
15-17						
Women	30	22	53	33	9	*
Men	32	24	54	28	7	11
18-19						
Women	56	8	48	31	16	4
Men	65	10	44	26	17	13
20-24						
Women	59	10	45	35	15	5
Men	76	6	27	32	19	22
25-34						
Women	49	8	38	50	9	3
Men	74	5	31	41	16	12
35-44						
Women	50	10	32	56	9	4
Men	74	3	26	45	18	12
45-54						
Women	49	11	31	53	13	3
Men	70	6	29	40	19	12
55-64						
Women	41	13	31	47	16	6
Men	64	7	27	38	18	17
65-74						
Women	34	18	30	47	19	3
Men	54	7	26	36	24	13
75 and over						
Women	23	27	36	38	18	8
Men	41	10	29	42	23	7
Total						
Females	43	15	36	48	12	4
Males	63	9	29	40	18	13

* *Data omitted due to high sampling variability.*

[1] *Percentage of regular drinkers who consumed one drink or more per month.*

Source: *Statistics Canada, National Population Health Survey.*

 Table 3.26

Percentage of the population participating in leisure-time physical activity, by age and level of activity, 1996-97

	Level of activity[1]		
	High	Moderate	Sedentary
		%	
People aged			
12-14			
Females	33	28	38
Males	54	25	21
15-17			
Women	31	22	47
Men	53	21	26
18-19			
Women	26	27	47
Men	39	24	37
20-24			
Women	22	26	52
Men	32	22	46
25-34			
Women	17	23	59
Men	22	23	55
35-44			
Women	17	22	61
Men	18	22	61
45-54			
Women	14	23	63
Men	17	21	62
55-64			
Women	15	24	61
Men	19	23	58
65-74			
Women	13	22	65
Men	21	24	55
75 and over			
Women	7	13	80
Men	14	21	66
Total			
Females	17	23	60
Males	24	22	54

[1] *Total columns do not add up to 100% as certain cases have been suppressed in the calculation of normalized rates.*

Source: *Statistics Canada, National Population Health Survey.*

CHAPTER 4

Education

by Josée Normand

Educational attainment

Canadian women have made tremendous strides in terms of their educational attainment in the past several decades. In 1996, for example, 12% of all women aged 15 and over had a university degree, double the figure in 1986 (6%) and four times that in 1971 (3%). (Chart 4.1)

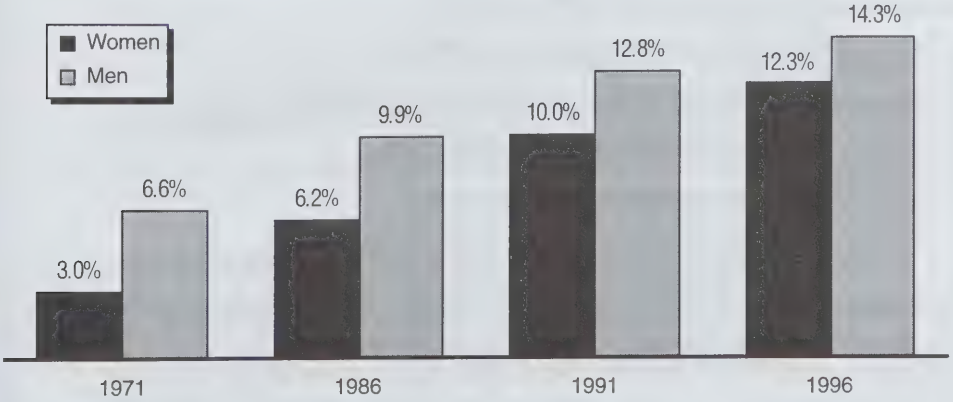
Women, however, are still somewhat less likely than men to have a university degree, although the gap is currently much smaller than in the past. In 1996, 12% of women aged 15 and over, compared with 14% of men, had graduated from a university program. In contrast, in 1971, the percentage of women with a degree (3%) had been less than half the figure for men (7%).

Women's representation among university graduates also declines sharply the higher the level. In 1996, women made up 50% of those with a Bachelor's or first professional degree, compared with only 23% of those with a doctorate. (Table 4.1)

On the other hand, women are more likely than men to have graduated from a community college. In 1996, 13% of women, versus 9% of men, had credentials from a community college. Women were also more likely than men to be high school graduates, while they were less likely to have either a trades certificate or diploma or to have completed some other form of non-university training.

WOMEN IN CANADA Chart 4.1

Percentage of people aged 15 and over with a university degree, 1971-1996



Sources: *Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 93-328-XPB, and Censuses of Canada.*

Provincial differences in university graduation rates

Women in Ontario are more likely to have a university degree than their counterparts in other provinces. In 1996, 14% of the female population aged 15 and over in Ontario had a degree, while the figure in the remaining provinces ranged from 12% in British Columbia, Alberta, and Nova Scotia to just 8% in Newfoundland. As well, in all provinces except Prince Edward Island, women were less likely than men to have a university degree that year. (Chart 4.2)

Young women better educated

As with men, educational attainment levels among women increase among each succeeding generation. As of 1996, for example, only 16% of women aged 20-24 had not completed high school, whereas this was the case for 19% of women aged 25-44, 38% of those aged 45-64, and well over half (63%) of senior women. (Table 4.2)

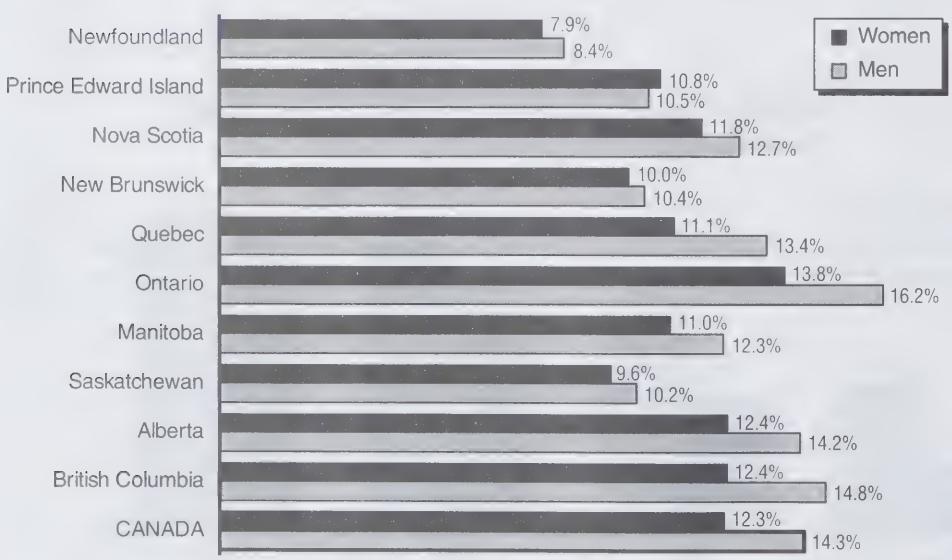
There was a somewhat similar pattern for women with a university degree, only in the opposite direction. In 1996, 18% of women aged 25-44 had graduated from university, compared with 11% of women aged 45-64 and only 4% of senior women.

Women in the 20-24 age bracket in 1996, though, were somewhat less likely than those aged 25-44 to have completed university (13% versus 18%). Many of the women in the younger age group, however, were likely still in school and had not yet completed their studies.

Young women, however, are currently more likely than their male contemporaries to have a university degree. In 1996, 13% of women aged 20-24, compared with 9% of men in this age range, were university graduates. At the same time, the proportion of women aged 25-44 with a university degree was the same as that for men in this age group, while both women aged 45-64 and senior women were considerably less likely than men in these age ranges to be university graduates.

WOMEN IN CANADA Chart 4.2

Percentage of people aged 15 and over with a university degree, by province, 1996



Source: *Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.*

Women majority in full-time university studies

The overall difference in the proportions of women and men with a university degree is likely to close even further in the future, since women currently make up the majority of full-time students in Canadian universities. In the 1997-98 academic year, 55% of all full-time university students were female, up from 52% in 1992-93 and 37% in 1972-73. (Table 4.3)

Women's share of full-time university enrolment, however, declines the higher the level of study. In 1997-98, women made up 56% of all students in Bachelor's and first professional degree programs, compared to 51% of those in Master's programs and just 43% of those working toward their doctorate.

The share of enrolment accounted for by women in graduate level programs, though, has increased substantially over the past two decades. Indeed, the share of total enrolment at the doctoral level currently accounted for by women (43%) is over twice the figure recorded in 1972-73, when women made up less than one in five (19%) doctoral candidates. During the same period, women's share of total enrolment among Master's students also nearly doubled, rising from 27% to 51%.

Women majority in most fields of study

Women make up the majority of full-time students in most university departments. In 1997-98, almost seven out of 10 students in both education (69%) and health-related programs (68%) were female, as were 63% of those in fine and applied arts, 62% of those in agricultural and biological sciences, 61% of those in the humanities, and 57% of those in the social sciences. (Table 4.4)

Women, however, account for much smaller shares of full-time enrolment in mathematics and science faculties. In 1997-98, only 29% of all university students in mathematics and physical sciences, and just 22% of those in engineering and applied sciences were women.

The proportion of women in both these areas, though, has increased since the early 1970s. In 1997-98, women made up 22% of students in engineering and applied sciences, up from 3% in 1972-73. At the same time, women's share of enrolment in mathematics and physical sciences rose from 19% in 1972-73 to 29% in 1997-98. Most of the latter increase, however, occurred in the 1970s. Indeed, there have only been modest gains in the share of students studying in these areas accounted for by women since the early 1980s. In contrast, the proportion of all engineering and applied sciences students accounted for by women has doubled since 1981-82.

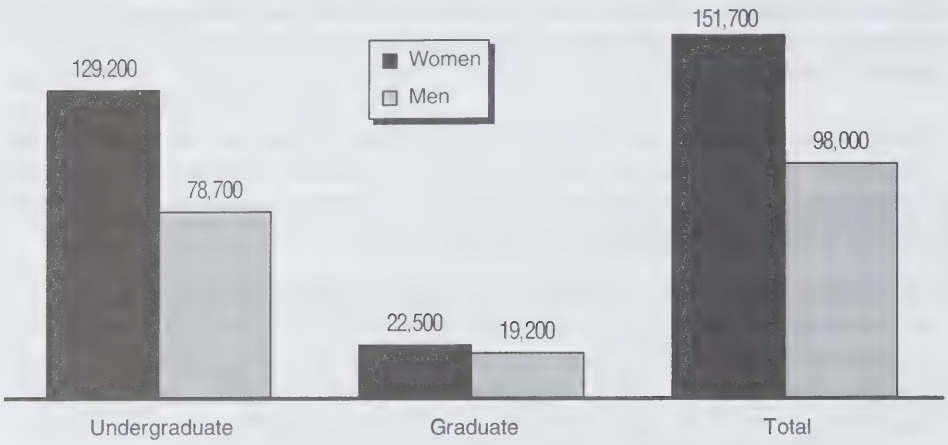
While women remain under-represented among all doctoral students, they do constitute a majority of those in several fields of study at this level. In 1997-98, women made up well over half of full-time doctoral candidates in both education (66%) and fine and applied arts (59%), as well as around half of those in the social sciences (52%) and the humanities (50%). In contrast, women made up 40% of doctoral candidates in agricultural and biological sciences, 23% of those in mathematics and physical sciences, and only 16% of those in engineering and applied sciences. (Table 4.5)

Part-time university enrolment of women

A substantial number of women currently attend university on a part-time basis. In 1997-98, over 150,000 women were enrolled in university programs on a part-time basis. That year, these students represented around 34% of the total university enrolment of women. They also made up 61% of all part-time university students. (Chart 4.3)

Chart 4.3

Part-time university enrolment, by level, 1997-98



Source: *Statistics Canada, Centre for Education Statistics.*

There has, however, been a decline in the number of women attending university on a part-time basis in the 1990s. Indeed, the number of women enrolled as part-time university students in 1997-98 was down 23% from the total in 1992-93. This decline, though, was similar to that experienced by men, among whom the number of part-time university students fell 20% in the same period.

Women also make up the majority of part-time university students at both the undergraduate and graduate levels. In 1997-98, 62% of part-time undergraduate students and 54% of those at the graduate level were women.

Women in community college

Women currently make up the majority of students in community colleges in Canada. In 1997-98, 53% of all full-time students in these facilities were women, a figure which has remained virtually unchanged since 1976-77. (Chart 4.4)

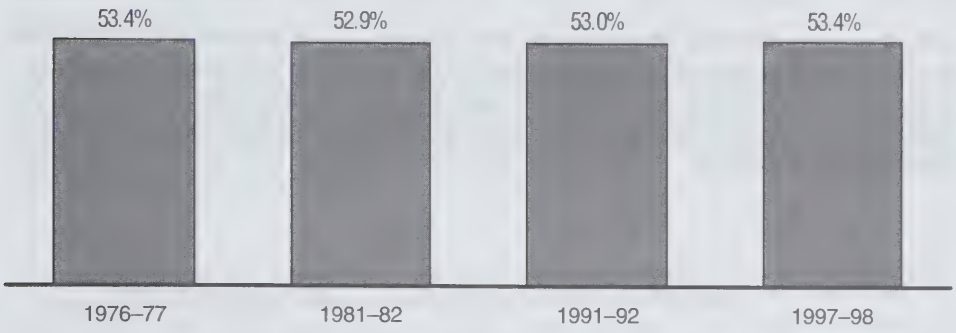
As in universities, there is wide divergence in women's share of enrolment in different fields of study at the community college level. On the one hand, women made up the vast majority of all full-time college students enrolled in secretarial science (93%), educational and counselling services (91%), and nursing (86%) in 1997-98, while they represented 78% of those in health sciences other than nursing, 70% of those in social sciences other than education, 68% of those in humanities, 56% of those in fine and applied arts, 55% of students in business and commerce programs other than secretarial science, and 52% of those in arts and sciences. In contrast, women accounted for only 41% of full-time community college enrolment in natural science and primary industry programs, 24% of that in mathematics and computer science, and just 15% of students in engineering and other technologies. (Table 4.6)

Continuing education

A substantial number of employed women take courses designed to upgrade their job skills. In 1997, almost 2 million employed women, 31% of the total number of women with jobs, were participating in some kind of job-related education or training program. In fact, working women were somewhat more likely to participate in a job-related education or training program than their male counterparts, 28% of whom were in such programs that year. (Table 4.7)

Chart 4.4

Women as a percentage of full-time community college enrolment,[1] 1976-77 to 1997-98



[1] *Refers to enrolment in career programs only.*
Source: *Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 81-229-XPB.*

Most women participating in job-related training are enrolled in non-academic courses oriented towards improving employment skills. In 1997, 24% of all employed women were taking courses of this nature, while 9% were taking courses designed to upgrade their academic qualifications. As well, these figures were about the same as those for employed men.

Apprenticeship training

Women continue to make up a very small proportion of those registered in apprenticeship programs[1] in what have been traditionally male-dominated trades. In 1997, just 2% of all apprentices registered in 15 predominant trades[2] were women. The total number of women participating in these programs, however, has more than doubled since 1988. (Table 4.8)

The largest concentration of women in the 15 identified trades occurs among those enrolled in painter/decorator programs, although even in this program women's representation is very small. In 1997, women made up 4% of those enrolled in painting/decorating apprenticeship programs. In contrast, women made up only around 1% or less of those enrolled in programs for industrial electricians, millwrights, steam or pipe fitters, bricklayers, plumbers, heavy duty equipment operators, sheet metal workers, and motor vehicle body repairpersons.

There have, however, been increases in the representation of women in most of these apprenticeship programs in the past decade. Indeed, the share of all apprentices accounted by women among carpenters, bricklayers, sheet metal workers, and motor vehicle mechanics quadrupled between 1988 and 1997, while the proportion in several other groups, including construction electricians, heavy-duty equipment mechanics, millwrights, motor vehicle body repairpersons, painter/decorators, plumbers, and those working in refrigeration/air conditioning all at least doubled.

Literacy skills

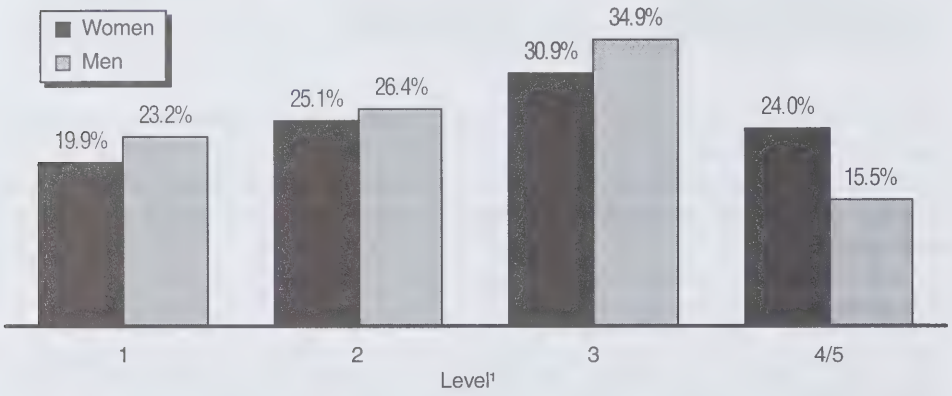
Women have somewhat higher literacy skills, on average, than the male population. In 1994, 24% of women aged 16 and over, compared with only 16% of men, performed at the highest levels of the International Adult Literacy Survey. At the same time, 20% of the female population, versus 23% of the male population, had very limited reading skills, that is; they were only able to perform simple reading tasks such as locating one piece of information in a text. (Chart 4.5)

Older women are much more likely than their younger counterparts to have literacy difficulties. In 1994, 53% of women aged 66 and over had very limited reading skills, compared with 33% of women aged 56-65, 15% of those aged 46-55, and just over 10% of those in age groups under age 45.[3] (Chart 4.6)

Senior women, however, were about as likely as their male counterparts to have literacy problems, while women in groups between the ages of 25 and 65 were generally less likely than men in these age ranges to have difficulty reading. The exception to this pattern were women aged 16-25, who were somewhat more likely than young men to have problems reading.

Chart 4.5

Prose literary levels of the population aged 16 and over, 1994

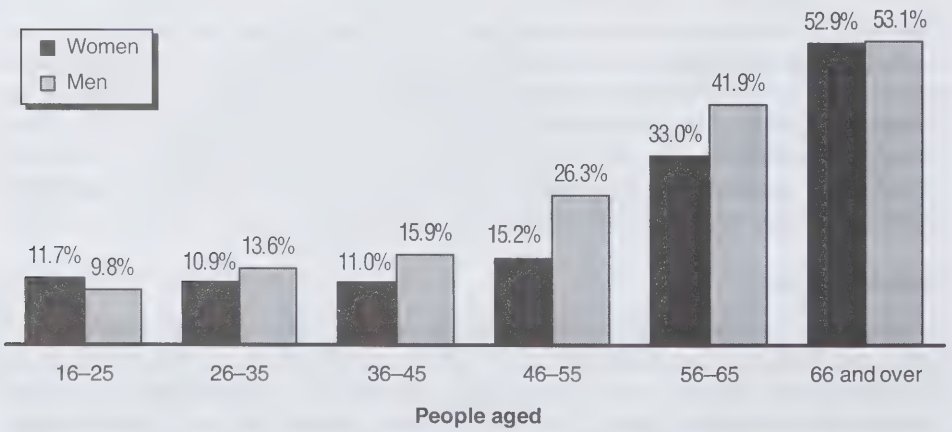


[1] *Tasks at Level 1 require the reader to perform simple reading skills such as locating and matching a single place of information in a text. Those at Level 2 require the reader to locate one or more pieces of information in a text, but several detractors may be present or low-level inferences may be required. Tasks at Level 3 require the reader to search for information that requires low-level inferences or that meets specified conditions. Tasks at Level 4/5 require the reader to perform multi-feature matching or provide responses where the requested information must be identified through text-based references, or to search for information in dense text that contains a number of plausible detractors.*

Source: *Statistics Canada, International Adult Literacy Survey.*

Chart 4.6

Percentage of the population at the lowest literacy level, by age, 1994



Note: *Figures should be used with caution because of the small size of the sample.*

Source: *Statistics Canada, International Adult Literacy Survey.*

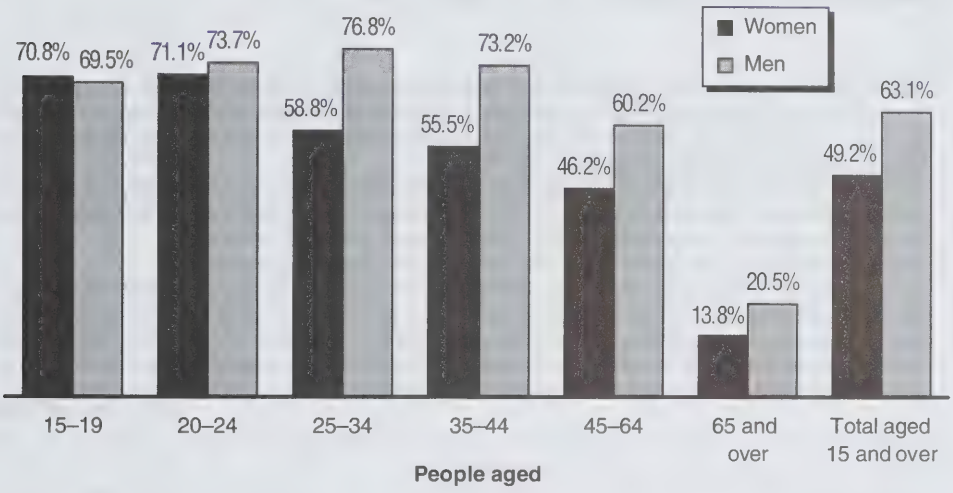
Computer use

Half of all women in Canada use computers.[4] On an average day in 1998, 49% of women aged 15 and over reported that they used a computer, although this was somewhat below the figure for men, 63% of whom used a computer in the same period. (Chart 4.7)

As with the male population, computer use among women is highest among younger age groups. In 1998, 71% of women aged 15-19 and 20-24 used a computer, compared with 59% of women aged 25-34, 56% of those aged 35-44, 46% of those aged 45-64, and just 14% of senior women.

WOMEN IN CANADA Chart 4.7

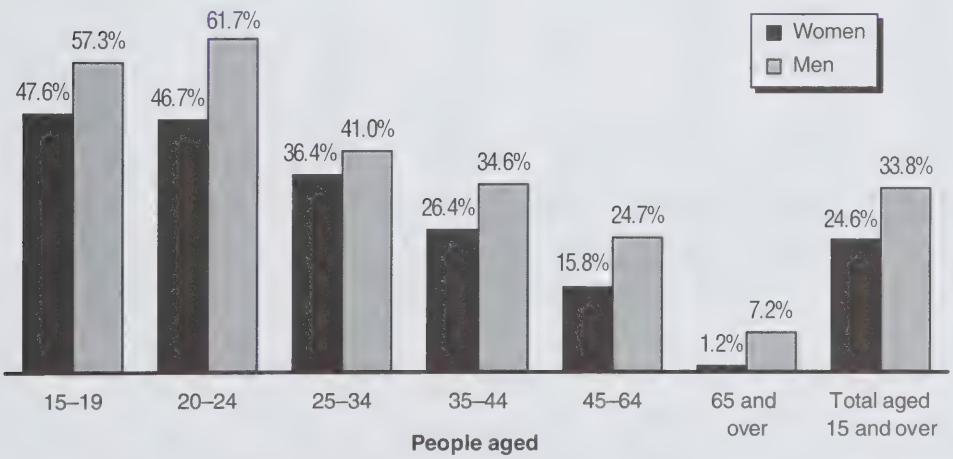
Percentage using computers, by age, 1998



Source: *Statistics Canada, General Social Survey.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Chart 4.8

Percentage using the Internet, by age, 1998



Source: *Statistics Canada, General Social Survey.*

Young women are also about as likely as their male counterparts to use a computer. In fact, in 1998, women aged 15-19 were slightly more likely than male teenagers to use a computer. In contrast, in age groups over age 25, women were somewhat less likely than men to use a computer.

As well, one in four women uses the Internet. In 1998, 25% of women aged 15 and over used the Internet on an average day, though, again this was below the figure for men, 34% of whom used the Internet. (Chart 4.8)

As with overall computer usage, young women are the most likely women to use the Internet. In 1998, almost half of both women aged 15-19 (48%) and 20-24 (47%) used the Internet, compared with 36% of women aged 25-34, 26% of those aged 35-44, 16% of those aged 45-64, and just 1% of senior women. At all ages, though, women were less likely than their male contemporaries to use the Internet.

Josée Normand is an analyst with the Target Groups Project.

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1 *Aprenticeship training involves a contract between an apprentice and an employer, registered with a province, in which the employer provides the apprentice with training and experience for a trade. Programs vary in length from one to five years, depending on the trade. Registered apprenticeship combines on-the-job experience with six to eight week periods of in-class training.*

2 *There are 180 established trades in Canada that have recognized registered apprenticeship programs. The 15 trades discussed in this section are among those with the largest number of participants. There are also two trades - hair stylists and cooks - which do attract a large number of female applicants.*

3 *These figures should be interpreted with caution because of the small size of the sample.*

4 *Note that data on both computer and Internet referred to in this section are based on responses from a time-use survey that measured what respondents did over the course of just one day. As such, the results may be lower than earlier estimates of computer use which covered longer time periods. Also note that computer and Internet use are influenced by the availability of these resources in the home; rates of computer ownership and access to Internet services in the home are discussed in Chapter 7.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 4.1

Educational attainment of persons aged 15 and over, 1996

	Women		Men		Women as a % of the total
	000s	%	000s	%	
Educational attainment					
Less than Grade 9	1,437.1	12.4	1,290.1	11.7	52.7
Some secondary school	2,600.5	22.4	2,540.3	23.0	50.6
High school graduate	1,810.0	15.6	1,428.6	13.0	56.0
Trades certificate or diploma	301.8	2.6	535.4	4.9	36.0
Community college certificate/diploma	1,565.7	13.4	1,041.0	9.4	60.1
Other non-university	1,304.4	11.2	1,576.4	14.3	45.3
Attended but did not graduate from university	1,162.2	10.0	1,034.7	9.4	52.9
University graduate					
Bachelor's/first professional degree	1,191.9	10.3	1,203.4	10.9	49.8
Master's	208.4	1.8	293.0	2.7	41.6
Doctorate	24.3	0.2	79.6	0.7	23.4
Total with university degree	1,424.7	12.3	1,576.1	14.3	47.4
Total	**11,606.4**	**100.0**	**11,022.4**	**100.0**	**51.3**

Source: *Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 4.2

Educational attainment, by age, 1996

	People aged							
	20-24		25-44		45-64		65 and over	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
	%							
Educational attainment								
Less than Grade 9	2.2	2.8	3.8	4.3	16.7	16.2	36.8	36.8
Some secondary school	13.8	18.7	15.3	17.9	20.9	18.2	26.6	22.1
High school graduate	13.1	17.2	17.0	14.0	16.3	11.4	12.0	8.2
Trade certificate/diploma	6.1	7.9	8.7	15.2	7.7	16.0	4.6	11.4
Some postsecondary	28.8	29.2	11.3	11.0	7.4	6.9	5.8	5.1
Postsecondary certificate/diploma	22.9	15.7	25.4	19.2	19.6	14.1	10.4	7.4
University degree	13.2	8.6	18.4	18.4	11.4	17.1	3.7	8.9
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
Total population (000s)	**945.6**	**947.3**	**4,728.9**	**4,595.4**	**3,121.4**	**3,054.4**	**1,862.4**	**1,417.4**

Source: *Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.*

Table 4.3

Full-time university enrolment of women, by level, 1972-73 to 1997-98

	1972-73			1981-82			1992-93			1997-98		
	000s	%	Women as a % of total in level	000s	%	Women as a % of total in level	000s	%	Women as a % of total in level	000s	%	Women as a % of total in level
Bachelor's/first professional degree	98.1	93.3	38.4	154.9	91.4	46.7	249.8	90.4	53.5	261.1	89.3	55.7
Master's	5.2	4.9	27.1	11.3	6.7	41.1	18.9	6.9	46.2	21.4	7.3	50.7
Doctorate	1.9	1.8	18.8	3.2	1.9	31.0	7.4	2.7	35.2	9.8	3.3	42.5
Total	**105.1**	**100.0**	**37.0**	**169.4**	**100.0**	**45.8**	**276.1**	**100.0**	**52.2**	**292.2**	**100.0**	**54.8**

Source: *Statistics Canada, Centre for Education Statistics.*

Table 4.4

Full-time university enrolment of women,[1] by field of study, 1972-73 to 1997-98

	1972-73			1981-82			1992-93			1997-98		
	000s	%	Women as a % of total in field	000s	%	Women as a % of total in field	000s	%	Women as a % of total in field	000s	%	Women as a % of total in field
Field of study												
Education	20.2	19.2	55.3	27.2	16.1	68.1	39.4	14.3	66.7	41.1	14.1	69.4
Fine/applied arts	5.0	4.8	58.9	7.7	4.6	61.1	10.8	3.9	61.9	12.1	4.1	63.2
Humanities	14.4	13.8	47.5	16.3	9.6	56.6	35.4	12.8	59.9	31.8	10.9	60.8
Social sciences	18.8	17.9	28.6	47.2	27.8	43.7	91.8	33.2	53.5	94.6	32.3	56.6
Agricultural/biological sciences	8.2	7.8	40.3	11.2	6.6	51.9	21.0	7.6	57.4	27.1	9.3	61.8
Engineering/applied sciences	0.7	0.7	2.7	4.4	2.6	10.7	9.4	3.4	17.9	11.6	4.0	21.5
Health professions	9.2	8.8	49.3	14.5	8.6	60.7	20.4	7.4	65.3	22.7	7.8	68.1
Mathematics/physical sciences	3.7	3.4	19.2	6.9	4.1	26.5	9.7	3.5	28.4	10.4	3.6	29.4
Total[2]	**105.1**	**100.0**	**37.0**	**169.4**	**100.0**	**45.8**	**276.1**	**100.0**	**52.2**	**292.2**	**100.0**	**54.8**

[1] *Includes both undergraduate and graduate programs.*

[2] *Includes those with no specialization and those for whom no specialization was stated.*

Source: *Statistics Canada, Centre for Education Statistics.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 4.5

Women as a percentage of full-time university enrolment, by level and field of study, 1997-98

	Bachelor's and first professional degree	Master's	Doctorate	Total
		%		
Field of study				
Education	69.5	69.7	66.3	69.4
Fine/applied arts	63.4	61.4	58.6	63.2
Humanities	62.2	57.7	50.0	60.8
Social sciences	57.4	50.7	51.6	56.6
Agricultural/biological sciences	63.5	55.6	40.1	61.8
Engineering/applied sciences	21.5	25.2	15.6	21.5
Health professions	70.8	62.4	47.4	68.1
Mathematics/physical sciences	29.7	32.7	23.4	29.4
Total[1]	**55.7**	**50.7**	**42.5**	**54.8**

[1] *Includes those with no specialization and those for whom no specialization was stated.*
Source: *Statistics Canada, Centre for Education Statistics.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 4.6

Full-time community college enrolment[1] of women, by field of study, 1997-98

	Women enrolled		Women as a % of total in field
	000s	%	
Field of study			
Fine/applied arts	16.2	10.7	56.1
Arts/sciences	4.3	2.8	52.4
Secretarial science	10.8	7.1	93.1
Other business/commerce	38.9	25.7	54.6
Mathematics/computer science	5.8	3.9	24.4
Engineering and other technologies	7.7	5.1	14.7
Nursing	11.4	7.5	86.2
Other health sciences	10.5	6.9	77.6
Humanities	2.3	1.5	67.6
Natural sciences/primary industries	6.2	4.1	40.9
Educational and counselling services	8.8	5.8	91.3
Other social sciences/services	28.1	18.6	70.4
Total[2]	**151.4**	**100.0**	**51.9**

[1] *Refers to enrolment in career programs only.*
[2] *Includes other and not reported.*
Source: *Statistics Canada, Centre for Education Statistics.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 4.7

Participation in job-related education or training programs, 1997

	Women		Men	
	000s	As a % of all employed women	000s	As a % of all employed men
Academic programs	566	9	554	8
Other courses	1,476	24	1,557	22
Total[1]	**1,908**	**31**	**1,996**	**28**

[1] *Columns add up to more than total because respondents could take both types of programs.*
Source: *Statistics Canada, Centre for Education Statistics.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 4.8

Enrolment of women in apprenticeship programs in selected trades, 1988, 1992 and 1997

	1988		1992		1997	
	Number of women enrolled	As a % of total enrolled in program	Number of women enrolled	As a % of total enrolled in program	Number of women enrolled	As a % of total enrolled in program
Program						
Bricklayer	7	0.2	22	0.6	17	0.9
Carpenter	125	0.5	385	1.4	396	2.1
Electrician – construction	143	0.7	305	1.3	388	2.0
Electrician – industrial	73	1.0	56	0.6	69	1.2
Heavy-duty equipment mechanic	15	0.3	14	0.3	27	0.6
Millwright	29	0.5	56	0.7	65	1.0
Machinist	76	1.9	126	3.8	102	2.4
Motor vehicle body repair	28	0.7	56	1.5	47	1.4
Motor vehicle mechanic	84	0.4	255	1.4	273	1.6
Painter/decorator	53	1.8	124	3.6	91	3.9
Plumber	28	0.4	46	0.6	62	1.1
Refrigeration/air conditioning	7	0.3	23	0.8	26	0.8
Sheet metal	16	0.3	29	0.5	58	1.3
Steam/pipe fitters	33	0.4	45	0.4	35	0.6
Welder	41	1.2	37	0.9	122	1.9
Total	**758**	**0.6**	**1,579**	**1.2**	**1,778**	**1.6**

Source: *Statistics Canada, Centre for Education Statistics.*

CHAPTER 5

Paid and Unpaid Work

by Nancy Zukewich

The division of labour in Canada

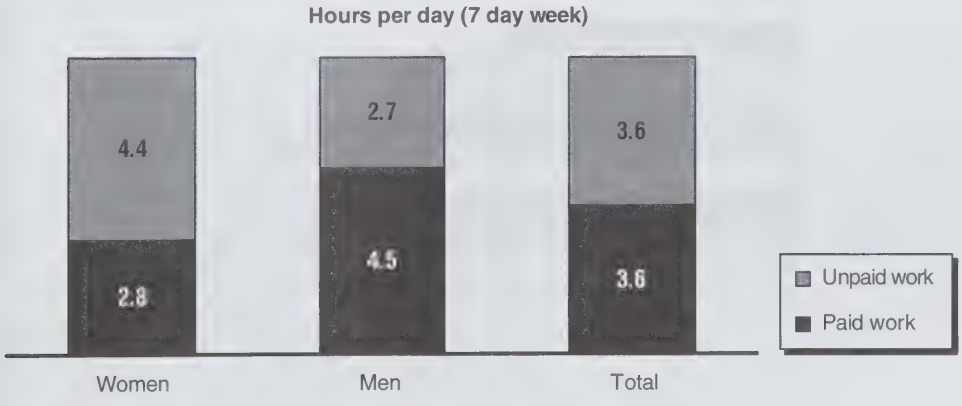
On the whole, Canadians spend about as much time on unpaid work activities, including household work such as cooking and washing up, housekeeping, shopping, child care, maintenance and repair, and voluntary activities, as they do working for pay or profit in the labour force. When averaged over a seven-day week in 1998, people aged 15 and over spent 3.6 hours per day on unpaid work and 3.6 hours on paid work, including commuting and other activities related to paid work. (Chart 5.1)

Although total working time is similar for women and men – in fact, both women and men averaged a total of 7.2 hours per day on paid and unpaid work in 1998 – there is a distinct division of labour between the sexes. For example, women spent an average of 2.8 hours daily on paid work and 4.4 hours on unpaid work, whereas the situation for men was the reverse; they spent 4.5 hours on paid work and 2.7 hours on unpaid work.

Indeed, women undertake the larger share of unpaid work, an estimated 65% of all hours spent on these activities in 1992. Overall, this unpaid work done by women represented between 32% and 54% of Gross Domestic Product at market prices that year, depending on the valuation method used. As well, despite the increased participation of women in the labour market, women's share of unpaid work hours has remained quite stable since the early 1960s, at about two-thirds of the total.[1]

WOMEN IN CANADA Chart 5.1

Average time spent on paid and unpaid work activities by the population aged 15 and over, 1998



Source: *Statistics Canada, General Social Survey.*

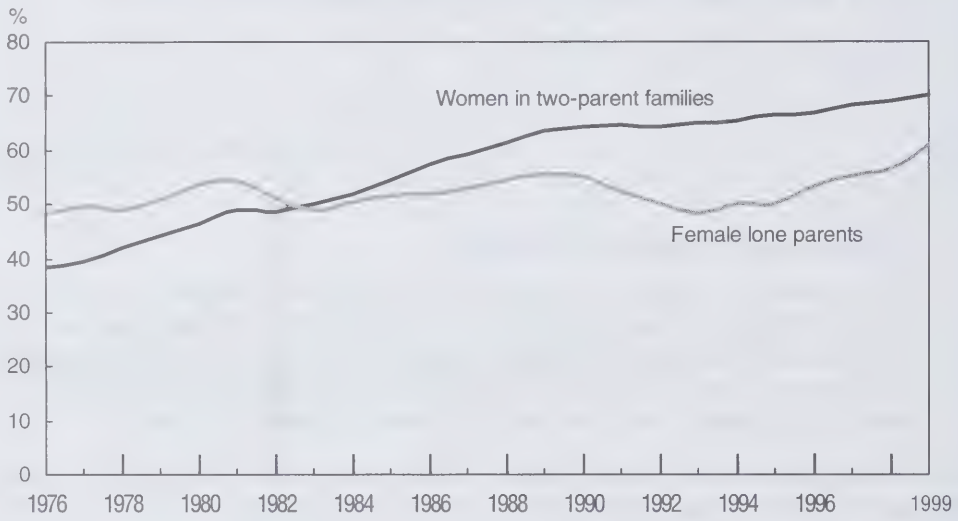
Employment of female lone parents

Female lone parents are less likely than mothers in two-parent families to be employed. In 1999, 61% of female lone parents with children less than age 16 living at home were employed, compared with 70% of their counterparts in two-parent families. (Chart 5.2)

The proportion of female lone parents with jobs has risen since the mid-1990s when only about half of these women were employed. In fact, the share of female lone parents with jobs jumped four percentage points in 1999 alone. This comes after a substantial drop in employment among lone mothers during the recession in the early 1990s, a trend contrary to that observed among mothers in two-parent families.

Chart 5.2

Employment of women with children, by family status, 1976–1999

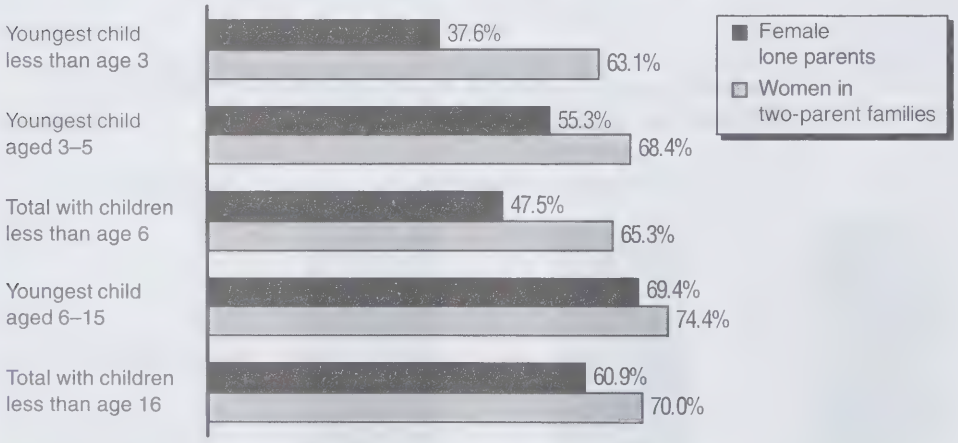


Source: Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey.

The employment of female lone parents is also very much influenced by the presence of young children. In 1999, just 38% of lone mothers with children under age 3 were employed, compared with 55% of those whose youngest child was aged 3-5 and 69% of those whose youngest child was aged 6-15. (Chart 5.3)

Chart 5.3

Employment of mothers, by age of youngest child and family status, 1999



Source: Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey.

Female lone parents are also less likely to be employed than mothers in two-parent families whatever the age of their youngest child. Indeed, among mothers with a child under age 3, female lone parents were only about half as likely as women with a spouse to be employed in 1999: 38% versus 63%. At the same time, among those whose youngest child was aged 3-5, 55% of female lone parents, compared with 68% of mothers in two-parent families, were part of the paid workforce.

More women employed

The past several decades have witnessed dramatic growth in the share of women who are part of the labour force.[2] In 1999, 55% of all women aged 15 and over had jobs, up from 42% in 1976. In contrast, the proportion of men who were employed fell during this period from 73% to 67%. As a result, women accounted for 46% of the employed workforce in1999, up from 37% in 1976. (Table 5.1)

Most of the growth in the female employment, however, took place during the 1970s and 1980s. After reaching a peak of 54% in 1990, the female employment rate dipped to 52% during the recession in the early part of the 1990s and hovered around that level for most of the decade before rebounding to 54% in 1998 and 55% in 1999. Similarly, male employment fell during the recession, but is also slowly beginning to increase. The current male employment rate of 67%, though, remains well below the pre-recession level of over 70%.

Provincial variations in employment

Women in Ontario and the Western provinces are more likely than those in Quebec and most of the Atlantic provinces to be employed. In 1999, 62% of women in Alberta had jobs, as did around 57% of those in Manitoba, Saskatchewan and Ontario, and 55% of those in British Columbia. The majority of women in Prince Edward Island (53%) were also part of the employed workforce, while the figure was around 50% in Quebec, Nova Scotia and New Brunswick and just 43% in Newfoundland. In all provinces, however, women were considerably less likely than their male counterparts to be employed. (Table 5.2)

Educational attainment and employment

Not surprisingly, the likelihood of women being employed increases dramatically with educational attainment. In 1999, 77% of women with a university degree worked for pay or profit, as did 67% of those with a certificate or diploma from a community college, 60% of those with some postsecondary training, and 59% of high school graduates. In contrast, only 36% of women who had attended, but had not completed high school, and just 15% of those who had not gone beyond Grade 8 had jobs that year. (Table 5.3)

Regardless of their level of educational attainment, however, women are still somewhat less likely than their male counterparts to be employed. Among people with a university degree, for example, 77% of women, versus 80% of men, had jobs in 1999. Similarly, among those with a non-university certificate or diploma, 67% of women, compared with 78% of men, were employed.

Age and employment

Among women, those between the ages of 25 and 54 currently have the highest employment levels. In 1999, 74% of women aged 25-44 and 71% of those aged 45-54 had jobs, compared with 54% of women aged 15-24 and 37% of those aged 55-64. This contrasts with trends in the 1970s, when women aged 15-24 were slightly more likely than their older counterparts to be employed. In the intervening years, however, it has become more common for married women and women with children to participate in the labour force, while the employment rate of women aged 15-24 has changed little. (Table 5.4)

The high employment levels among women between the ages of 25 and 54 reflect, to a certain degree, women's changing roles. In the past, women tended to leave the labour force upon marriage to fulfil roles as wife, mother, or caregiver – duties that centred on unpaid work in the home. For instance, in 1960, less than 20% of married women were labour force participants, compared with 45% of women who were single, divorced, or widowed. Since the mid-1980s, however, married women have been more likely than their unmarried counterparts to be in the labour force.[3]

Despite these trends, women between the ages of 25 and 54 are still considerably less likely than their male counterparts to be employed. For example, in 1999, 74% of 25- to 44-year-old women had jobs, compared with 86% of men in this age group. Similarly, 71% of women aged 45-54 were employed that year, compared with 84% of their male counterparts. These gaps, however, have closed significantly since the mid-1970s, when women in these age ranges were only about half as likely as their male counterparts to be employed. (Table 5.4)

The gap between the employment levels of women and men aged 55-64 has also narrowed over the past two decades. This is due to modest increases in employment rates among women, accompanied by a sharp decline in employment levels among men. This decline in male employment levels may reflect, in part, the trend for men to retire at earlier ages. Women aged 55-64, though, were still considerably less likely than men in this age range to be employed in 1999: 37% versus 57%.

In contrast to older age groups, employment rates are similar for women and men aged 15-24. In 1999, close to 55% of both women and men in this age range were working for pay or profit. This also represents a change from 1976, when young women were somewhat less likely than their male counterparts to be employed: 52% versus 60%.

Employment and presence of children

There has been a particularly sharp growth in the employment rate of women with children in the past two decades. In 1999, 69% of all women with children less than age 16 living at home were part of the employed workforce, up from 39% in 1976. Women with children, though, are still less likely to be employed than women without children. In 1999, for example, 76% of women under age 55 without children had jobs. (Table 5.5)

WOMEN IN CANADA Chart 5.4

Percentage of employed mothers working full-time, by age of youngest child, 1999



Source: *Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey.*

There have been particularly dramatic increases in the employment levels of women with very young children. Indeed, by 1999, 61% of women with children less than age 3 were employed, more than double the figure in 1976. Similarly, 66% of women whose youngest child was aged 3-5 worked for pay or profit in 1999, up from 37% in 1976.

Women with pre-school-aged children, though, are still less likely than those with school-aged children to be employed. Overall, in 1999, 63% of women with children under age 6 were employed, compared with 74% of those whose youngest child was aged 6-15.

The vast majority of employed women with children hold full-time jobs. In 1999, seven in 10 employed women with at least one child under age 16 at home were employed full time; that is, they worked 30 or more hours per week at their jobs. As well, the age of children had very little impact on the likelihood of mothers being employed full-time. Even among employed women whose youngest child was under 3 years of age, 68% had full-time jobs that year. (Chart 5.4)

WOMEN IN CANADA

Child care

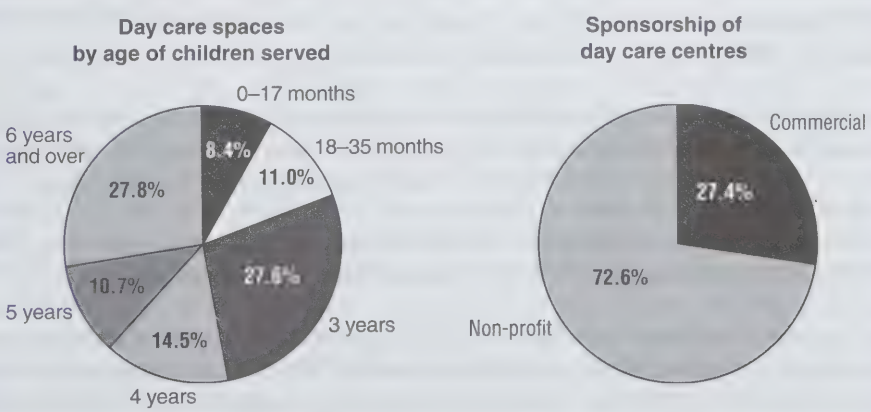
There has been a substantial increase in the number of licensed child care spaces available to families in the past several decades. By 1996, there were over 435,000 licensed child care spaces in Canada, 36% more than in 1990 and four times more than in 1980. The rate of increase in the number of child care spaces, however, has slowed somewhat in recent years. In the 1994-96 period, for example, the number of spaces increased by around 5% per year, compared with increases of 11% per year between 1987 and 1989 and 19% per year from 1982 to 1987. (Table 5.6)

Most regular day care centre spaces are in non-profit centres. In 1996, 73% of all day care centre spaces were in non-profit centres, while 27% were in commercial centres. As well, these non-profit centres have accounted for almost all the growth in the overall number of day care centre spaces in recent years. Indeed, 95% of the increase in the number of day care centre spaces in 1996 were in non-profit centres. (Chart 5.5)

Despite the long-term growth in the number of licensed day care spaces, the spaces currently available still represent only a portion of the potential child care requirements of Canadian families. In 1996, for example, there were just over 300,000 day care spaces available to pre-school-aged children in Canada. At the same time, there were 900,000 families in Canada with at least one pre-school-aged child in which either both parents or a lone parent was employed.

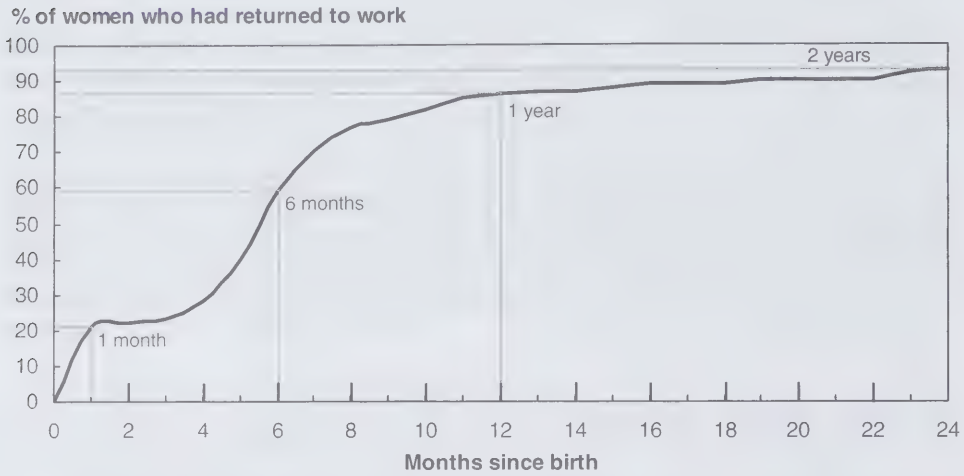
Chart 5.5

Dimensions of day care in Canada, 1996



Source: *Human Resources Development Canada, Status of Day Care in Canada.*

Percentage of mothers returning to jobs after childbirth, 1993-96



Source: *Statistics Canada, Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics.*

Maternity absences from work

The vast majority of employed women return to the labour force after childbirth. Of the 367,000 employed women who gave birth in 1993 or 1994, one in five (21%) were back at work by the end of the first month after childbirth. In fact, within a year of giving birth, 86% of mothers had returned to work, and by two years, a full 93% had returned to their jobs. (Chart 5.6).

Two factors – class of worker and receipt of maternity benefits – were found to be important predictors of early return to work after childbirth. For example, mothers who did not receive maternity benefits were almost six times more likely to have returned to work by the end of the first month compared with those who received benefits. Also, mothers who were self-employed were almost eight times more likely to have returned to work earlier than paid employees.[4]

Among the 93% of women who were back at their jobs within two years of childbirth, the average time off work was 6.4 months. Of these women, eight in 10 (83%) returned to the same employer, and nine in 10 returned to their previous work status, that is, either full-time or part-time. As well, all the women who took at least six months off work reported receiving Employment Insurance benefits, compared with only 40% of those who were back at their jobs by the end of the first month after childbirth.

The large majority of paid employees who go on maternity leave are compensated. In 1998, 93% of all paid female workers who completed maternity absences had received some form of monetary compensation. This was up from 77% in 1980. Most of this increase, however, took place in the early part of the 1980s. It should be noted that these figures do not include either unincorporated self-employed workers or those who took no time off work or who took a leave of less than two weeks.[5]

Employment Insurance benefits are the most common form of maternity leave compensation received by paid female employees. In 1998, 75% of women who received compensation for maternity-related absence from work received only Employment Insurance benefits, while another 17% received Employment Insurance benefits

Employment Insurance maternity and parental leave benefits

Major amendments to the Unemployment Insurance Act in 1971 brought in a wide range of benefits, including maternity leave for women. This leave entitles eligible women to a basic benefit of 55% of average insured earnings up to a maximum of $413 per week for a maximum of 15 weeks around the birth of a child. Eligibility rules changed with the *Employment Insurance Act* of January 1997, increasing the minimum number of hours of work in the past 52 weeks from 300 to 700.

Since 1990, eligible parents have also been entitled to 10 weeks of parental leave with the birth or adoption of a child. This leave can be taken by one parent or can be shared if both parents are eligible any time up to 52 weeks after the child arrives home.

accompanied by other forms of compensation, such as group insurance benefits or employer top-ups. In contrast, only 8% of these women received benefits exclusively from a source other than Employment Insurance. (Table 5.7)

Absences from work due to other responsibilities

A small proportion of women lose time from their jobs because of personal or family responsibilities. During an average week in 1999, 3% of all full-time female paid employees lost some time from work for these reasons, compared with 1% of their male counterparts. Overall, in 1999, paid female employees missed an average of 7 days due to these commitments, up from around 4 days per year in the mid-1980s and 2 days in the late 1970s. Employed men, on the other hand, missed only one day of work in 1999 because of personal or family responsibilities, a figure which has increased only marginally since 1980. (Table 5.8)

Non-standard work

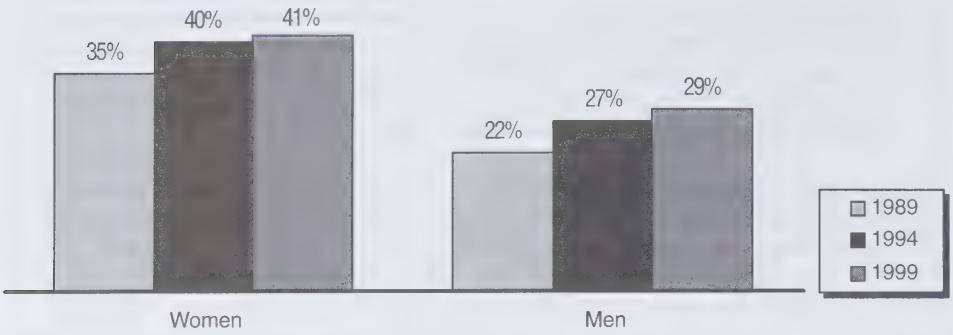
Although most employed Canadian women work at one full-time permanent paid job, the number working in non-standard arrangements, including part-time workers, temporary employees, self-employed persons without paid help, and multiple job holders, has grown over the past decade. In 1999, 41% of employed women aged 15-64 had a non-standard employment arrangement, compared with 35% in 1989. Although the percentage of men with non-standard work has also increased, women were still more likely than men to have this kind of employment relationship in 1999: 41% versus 29%. (Chart 5.7)

Part-time employment

Part-time employment is the most common form of non-standard work arrangement for women. In 1999, 28% of all employed women worked less than 30 hours per week, compared with just 10% of employed men. In fact, women hold the large majority of all part-time jobs; indeed, since the mid-1970s, women have consistently accounted for about seven in 10 of all part-time employees. (Table 5.9)

Young women are more likely than other women to work part-time. In 1999, over half (52%) of employed women aged 15-24 worked part-time, compared with 22% of those between the ages of 25 and 54 and 31% of those aged 55-64. Women in all age groups, and especially those over age 25, however, were far more likely than their male counterparts to work part-time. That year, for example, 22% of women in both the 25-44 and 45-54 age ranges worked part-time, versus less than 5% of men in each of these groups. (Table 5.10)

Percentage of workers[1] with non-standard employment arrangement,[2] 1989, 1994 and 1999



1 *Includes employees aged 15-64 only.*

2 *Refers to those with one or more of part-time work, temporary work, own-account self-employment, or multiple jobholding; note that people in more than one category are counted only once.*

Sources: *Statistics Canada, General Social Survey, and Labour Force Survey.*

Most women who work part-time do so either because they do not want full-time employment or because part-time work is more appropriate for their personal situation. In 1999, 29% of women employed part-time reported they did not want full-time work and 22% indicated they were going to school. In comparison, 20% of men did not want full-time work, while 43% were students. (Table 5.11)

Many women, however, work part-time because of child care or other responsibilities. In 1999, one in five female part-time employees said they worked part-time because of personal or family responsibilities: 16% said they did not work full-time because they were caring for children, while 5% reported other family or personal responsibilities. In sharp contrast, only 2% of male part-time workers cited these reasons.

At the same time, a substantial number of women work part-time because they cannot find full-time employment. In 1999, 25% of all female part-time employees indicated that they wanted full-time employment, but could only find part-time work. Women, though, were slightly less likely than men to work part-time involuntarily; that year, 30% of male part-time employees wanted full-time work.

The reasons women work part-time also vary considerably by age. Women aged 25-44, for example, were more likely than other women to work part-time in 1999 because of personal or family responsibilities or because they could not find full-time work. In contrast, women aged 15-24 were the most likely to work part-time because they were going to school, while those aged 45 and over were the most likely not to want full-time employment.

Self-employment

The likelihood of women being self-employed has grown considerably over the past 20 years. In 1999, 13% of employed women were self-employed, up from 9% in 1976. Women, though, are still less likely than men to be self-employed. However, in the past two decades, and especially in the 1990s, self-employment has grown faster for women than for men. As a result, women accounted for 35% of all self-employed workers in 1999, up from 31% in 1990 and 26% in 1976. (Table 5.12)

The majority of self-employed women work on their own without paid help. In 1999, over 70% of self-employed women worked on their own, while less than 30% had paid help. As well, most of the growth in self-employment among women in the 1990s has been accounted for by those without paid help. Of the net gain in female self-employment from 1989 to 1999, around 85% came from own-account workers. This contrasts with the situation in the 1980s when own-account workers made up close to 40% of the increase in female self-employment.[6]

Nonetheless, the number of self-employed women with paid help grew by over 50,000 between 1989 and 1999, while the number of male employers experienced a net decline. Despite this gain, self-employed women were still less likely than their male counterparts to have paid help in 1999.

Business and other services have been important sources of growth in self-employment in the 1990s for both women and men. Within business services, growth in female self-employment was most pronounced among accountants and bookkeepers, management consultants, and those providing other business services. For men, gains were especially strong in computing services and management consulting. Growth in other services was most notable among women with beauty shops, while for men, it was among those offering janitorial and window cleaning services. Unlike men, however, a considerable share of the growth in women's self-employment has come from the health and social services industry. Within this industry, growth was particularly strong among women offering day care and homemaking services.[7]

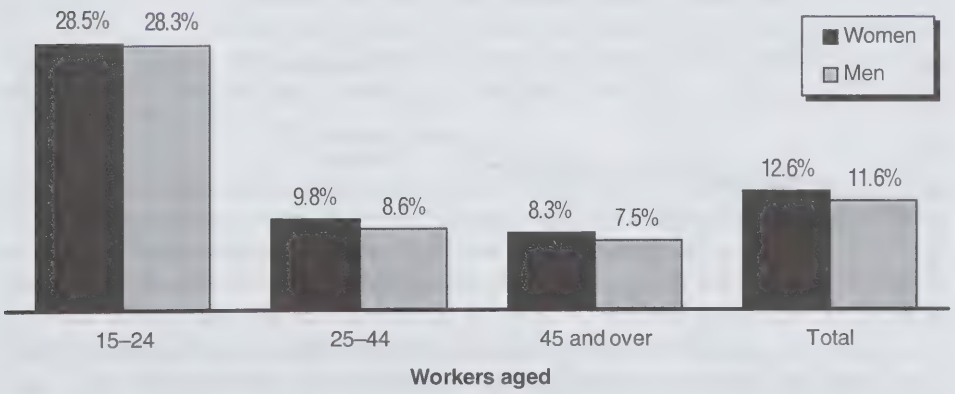
Temporary work

Women are slightly more likely than men to have temporary employment; that is, employment with a predetermined end date. In 1999, 13% of female employees, compared to 12% of male employees, had a temporary work arrangement. (Chart 5.8)

Women aged 15-24 are much more likely than older workers to have temporary jobs. In 1999, 29% of these young female employees had temporary work, compared with just 10% of employed women aged 25-44 and 8% of those aged 45 and over. Trends were similar for men, but figures were slightly higher for women in all age ranges.

Chart 5.8

Percentage of employed with temporary work, by age, 1999



Source: *Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey.*

Multiple jobholders

A small, but growing, share of employed women in Canada hold more than one job. In 1999, 6% of employed women were multiple jobholders, up from 4% in 1987. As well, women were slightly more likely to be multiple jobholders than men: 6% versus 4%. Overall, women accounted for about half (52%) of all multiple jobholders that year, up from 42% in 1987. (Table 5.13)

Young women are especially likely to hold more than one job. In 1999, 8% of employed women aged 15-24 were multiple jobholders, compared with 6% of women aged 25-44 and 4% of those aged 45 and over. Employed women aged 15-24 were also more likely than their male contemporaries to have more than one job: 8% versus 5%.

Women in unions

Over the past three decades, unionization among women has risen considerably. The proportion of female employees belonging to a union almost doubled from 16% in 1966 to 31% in 1999. This contrasts sharply with the experience of male employees, whose union membership rate has trended down. Nonetheless, employed women were still slightly less likely than their male counterparts to belong to a union in 1999: 31% versus 33%. (Chart 5.9)

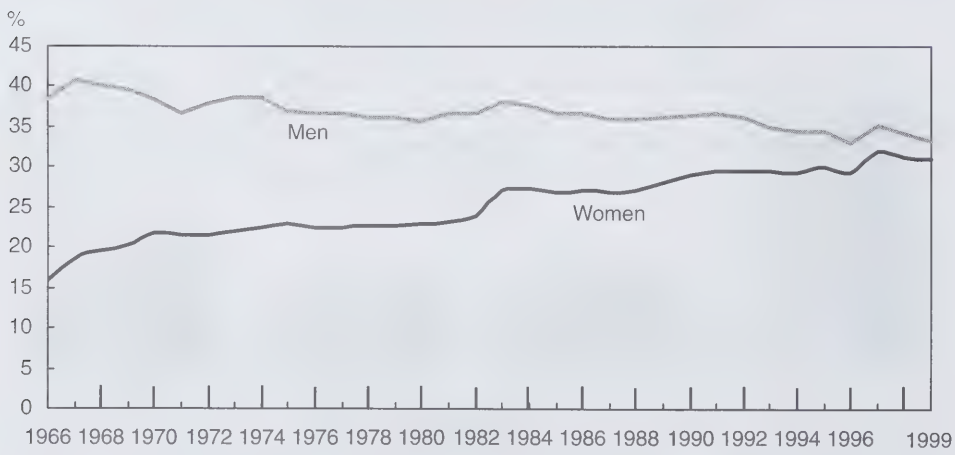
As a result of these trends, women represented 46% of all union members in 1999, compared with less than 20% three decades ago. The rise in union activity among women prior to the 1990s can be traced to several factors, most notably their growing presence in the heavily unionized public sector. Since the beginning of the 1990s, however, women's union membership has changed little as declines in the public sector were offset by increases elsewhere.[8]

Industrial sector

The vast majority of employed women work in the service sector[9] of the economy. In 1999, 86% of all employed women held jobs in this industrial sector, compared with 63% of employed men. In fact, women made up the majority (54%) of all service-sector workers in Canada that year. (Table 5.14)

WOMEN IN CANADA Chart 5.9

Percentage of workers unionized, 1966-1999



Sources: *Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey; and CALURA.*

In contrast, only 14% of employed women, versus 37% of men, worked in goods-producing industries[10] in 1999. As a result, women represented only 24% of total employment in these industries that year, a figure which has barely changed in the past decade.

Occupational distribution

The majority of employed women continue to work in occupations in which women have traditionally been concentrated. In 1999, 70% of all employed women were working in teaching, nursing and related health occupations, clerical or other administrative positions, and sales and service occupations. This compared with just 29% of employed men. (Table 5.15)

The proportion of women employed in traditionally female-dominated occupations, however, has slowly declined over the past decade. In 1999, 70% of employed women were working in one of these areas, down from 74% in 1987.

Most of the drop in the proportion of employed women working in traditionally female-dominated jobs since the late 1980s has been accounted for by declines in the share employed in clerical and related administrative jobs. In 1999, 25% of all employed women had these types of jobs, compared with 30% in 1987. In contrast, the share of women working in sales and service jobs has actually risen slightly in the same period, while there has been little change in the shares of women employed in either teaching or nursing.

As well, women continue to account for large shares of total employment in each of these occupational groups. In 1999, 87% of nurses and health-related therapists, 75% of clerks and other administrators, 62% of teachers, and 59% of sales and service personnel were women.

At the same time, though, women have increased their representation in several professional fields in recent years. For example, in 1999, women made up 49% of business and financial professionals, up from 41% in 1987. There has also been substantial growth in the number of women employed in diagnostic and treating positions in medicine and related health professions. In fact, women made up almost half (47%) of all doctors and dentists in 1999, up from 44% in 1987. Similarly, 58% of professionals employed in social sciences or religion in 1999 were women, compared with 48% in 1987.

Women have also increased their share of total employment in managerial positions. In 1999, 35% of all those employed in managerial positions were women, up from 29% in 1987. Among managers, however, women tend to be better represented among lower-level managers as opposed to those at more senior levels. In 1999, women made up only 27% of senior managers, compared with 36% of managers at other levels.

Women also continue to remain very much a minority among professionals employed in the natural sciences, engineering, and mathematics. In 1999, just 20% of professionals in these occupations were women, a figure which has changed little since 1987 (17%). In addition, it is unlikely that female representation in these occupations will increase in the near future, because, as reported in Chapter 4, women continue to account for relatively small shares of total university enrolments in these fields.

There are also relatively few women employed in most goods-producing occupations in which few women have traditionally worked. In 1999, 30% of workers in manufacturing

Women in agriculture

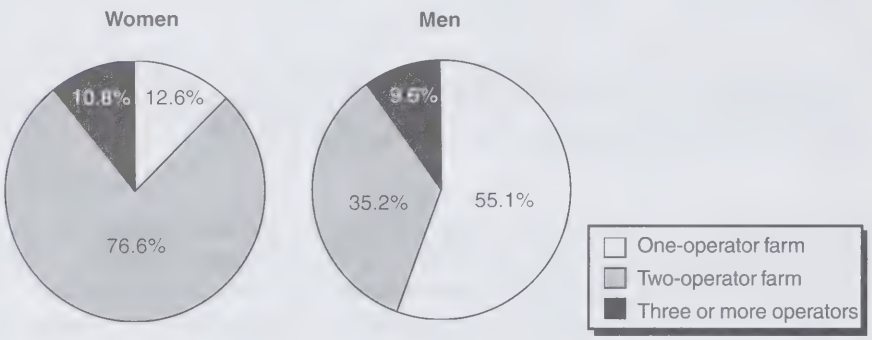
Women make up a substantial share of farm operators in Canada. In 1996, there were just under 100,000 female farm operators, representing one-fourth of all farm operators that year. (Table 5.16)

Female farm operators are considerably older, on average, than other female labour force participants in Canada. In 1996, 26% of all female farmers were aged 55 and over, compared with 16% of all self-employed women and 9% of all female labour force participants. In contrast, only 17% of female farmers were under age 35, versus 26% of self-employed women and 43% of all female labour force participants.

As well, the vast majority of female farm operators share the responsibilities of management with at least one partner. In 1996, 77% of female operators were partners on two-operator farms and 11% managed farms with three or more operators, while only 13% managed farms on their own. In contrast, 55% of male farm operators managed farms on their own, while 35% were partners on a two-operator farm and and 10% were involved in multi-owner farms. (Chart 5.10)

Chart 5.10

Farm operators, by number of operators, 1996



Source: *Statistics Canada, Census of Agriculture.*

were women, as were 22% of those in primary industries and just 6% of those in transportation, trades, and construction work. The representation of women in the latter two categories, however, has grown somewhat since the late 1980s, while that in manufacturing was about the same in 1999 as it was in 1987.

Unemployment rates lower

Unemployment[11] rates are currently slightly lower among women than men. In 1999, 522,000 women, 7.3% of all female labour force participants, were unemployed, compared with 7.8% of male labour force participants. In fact, the unemployment rate has been lower among women than men throughout the 1990s, whereas the reverse was the case for much of the period from 1976 to 1989. (Table 5.17)

Young women are considerably more likely than other women to be unemployed. In 1999, 12.6% of female labour force participants aged 15-24 were unemployed, compared with just 6.6% of those aged 25-44 and 5.4% of those aged 45-64. (Table 5.18)

Young women, however, are still considerably less likely than their male counterparts to be unemployed. While 12.6% of female labour force participants aged 15-24 were unemployed in 1999, the figure was 15.3% among males in this age group. In contrast, women aged 25-44 and 45-64 were both about as likely to be unemployed as men in these age ranges.

Women in the Atlantic provinces and Quebec have higher unemployment rates than those in Ontario and the Western provinces. In 1999, 15.5% of female labour force participants in Newfoundland were unemployed, while the figure was 13.9% in Prince Edward Island, 9.4% in New Brunswick and 8.8% in both Nova Scotia and Quebec. In contrast, less than 8% of female labour force participants in Ontario and each of the Western provinces were unemployed. (Table 5.19)

Women in the Atlantic provinces and Quebec, however, were less likely than their male counterparts to be unemployed. Women in the Western provinces were also less likely than men in these provinces to be unemployed, while in Ontario, the unemployment rates of women and men were about the same.

The largest number of unemployed women either lost, or were laid off from, their last job. In 1999, 41% of unemployed women fell into one of these categories. At the same time, 26% were labour force re-entrants who had not worked for pay or profit in the last year, while 13% were new job-market entrants who had never been employed. Another 4% of unemployed women had left their last job because they were going to school, 2% had left because of personal or family responsibilities, and 2% had left because of personal illness. (Table 5.20)

Unemployed women, though, are less likely than unemployed men to have lost, or been laid off from, their last job. In 1999, 41% of unemployed women, versus 53% of unemployed men, had lost their job or been laid off. On the other hand, unemployed women were more likely than their male counterparts to have left their last job because of personal or family responsibilities: 2% versus 1%. Unemployed women were also more likely than men to have been either new job-market entrants who had never worked for pay or profit or labour force re-entrants who had not been employed in the previous year.

Employment Insurance recipients

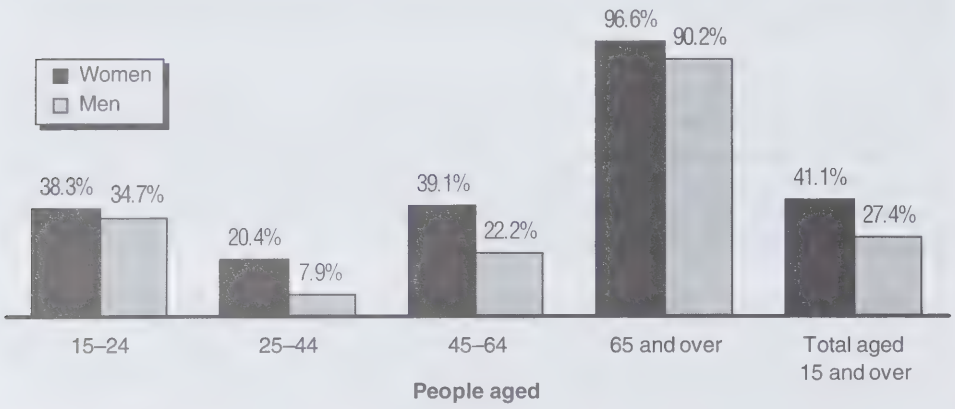
As with men, the number of women receiving Employment Insurance (EI) benefits has fallen dramatically in recent years. In 1998, an average of 342,400 women received such benefits each month, well below the peak figure of 616,400 recorded in 1992 at the height of the recession in the early 1990s. There was a similar decline in the number of male EI recipients in the same period. As a result, women represented 46% of all EI recipients in 1998, up slightly from around 44% in the early 1990s, but down from 47% in the late 1980s. (Table 5.21)

The majority of women receiving Employment Insurance get regular benefits. In 1998, 64% of all female EI beneficiaries received regular benefits, while 22% received maternity/parental benefits, 6% got sickness benefits, and 4% received training benefits. At the same time, very small percentages received work-sharing, job-creation, fishing, or self-employment assistance benefits. (Table 5.22)

Not surprisingly, women accounted for almost all recipients (98%) of Employment Insurance maternity/parental benefits in 1998. As well, they made up the majority (59%) of those receiving sickness benefits. On the other hand, women accounted for only 40% of those receiving self-employment assistance benefits, 38% of those receiving

 Chart 5.11

Percentage not in labour force, by age, 1999



Source: *Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey.*

training benefits, 38% of those getting job-creation benefits, and 34% of those involved in work-sharing arrangements. Women also accounted for 40% of regular EI beneficiaries.

Women not in labour force

While the majority of women currently participate in the labour force, a substantial proportion do not. In 1999, 41% of women aged 15 and over were neither employed, nor looking for employment, compared with 27% of men. (Chart 5.11)

Among women under age 65, those aged 45-64 and 15-24 are more likely than those aged 25-44 not to participate in the labour force. In 1999, close to 40% of both women aged 45-64 and 15- to 24-year-olds were not labour force participants, compared with 20% of those aged 25-44.

As well, in all age ranges, women are more likely than their male contemporaries not to participate in the labour force. In fact, in 1999, women aged 25-44 were almost two and a half times more likely than men in this age range to be neither employed, nor seeking employment: 20% versus 8%. Similarly, women aged 45-64 were almost twice as likely as their male counterparts to be out of the labour force that year: 39% compared with 22%.

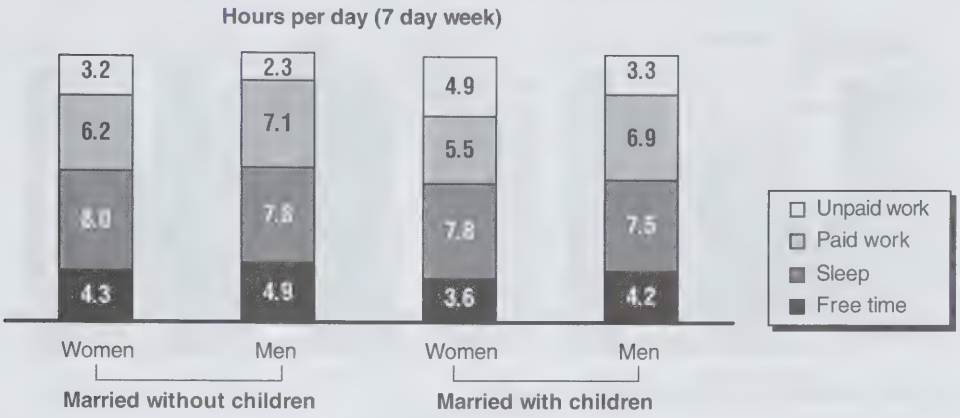
Families with a stay-at-home parent

The percentage of families with one parent who stays out of the labour force in order to care for children has declined dramatically over the past decades. In 1997, one in five (22%) two-parent families with at least one child under age 16 at home had one parent employed in the labour force and one non-earning stay-at-home parent.[12] This compares with half (52%) of families in 1976.[6]

This decline is largely due to the increased labour force participation of women with children. Indeed, the number of women who are stay-at-home parents has dropped dramatically since the 1970s. In 1997, 1.1 million mothers stayed home to care for children and did not participate in the labour market, down from almost 3 million in 1976. At the same time, the number of stay-at-home fathers has increased from 41,000 to 77,000. Nonetheless, women continue to account for nearly all stay-at-home parents. In 1997, 94% of stay-at-home parents in single-earner couple families were mothers.

Chart 5.12

Time allocation of people aged 25-44 employed full-time, 1998



Source: *Statistics Canada, General Social Survey.*

As well, that year, 1% of stay-at-home mothers and 6% of stay-at-home fathers were actually discouraged workers, that is, they wanted a job, but were not looking for employment in the belief that no work was available.[13]

Employment and unpaid work responsibilities

Even when employed, women are still largely responsible for looking after their homes and families. In 1998, women employed full time with a spouse and at least one child under age 19 at home spent 4.9 hours per day[14] on unpaid work activities. This was an hour and a half more per day than their male counterparts, who averaged 3.3 hours per day on these activities. (Chart 5.12)

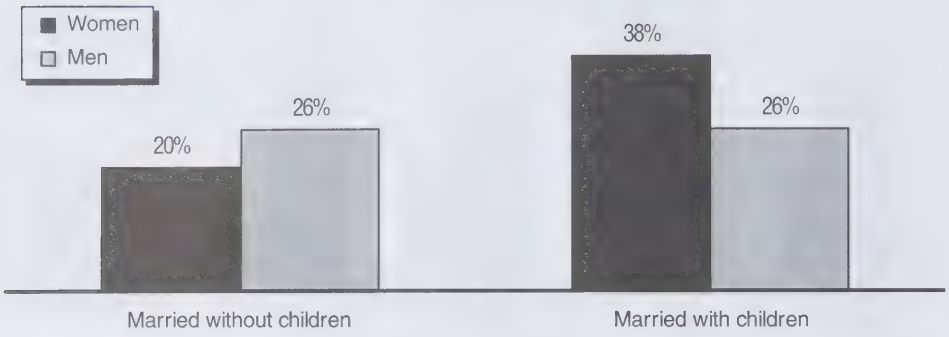
The presence of children has a large effect on the way women spend their time. Mothers employed full time with a spouse spend more time on unpaid work, have less leisure time, and cut back on their hours of paid work as compared to their counterparts without children. For example, in 1998, women employed full time with children spent 1.7 more hours on unpaid work than women without children, while they spent 0.7 fewer hours per day on both paid work and leisure activities. Men with children also modify the way they spend their time, but their changes are less dramatic. Compared to men without children, employed fathers spent an hour more per day on unpaid work, but spent just 0.2 hours per day less at their paid work. Like their female counterparts, men with children also had over a half an hour less leisure time per day than men without children.

Time stress

Increased "role complexity", or the number of duties an individual has to undertake, can lead to higher levels of time stress. Not surprisingly, levels of severe time stress[15] are high for married parents aged 25-44 who are employed full-time. In 1998, more than one in three (38%) women in this group reported they were time-stressed, compared with just over one-quarter (26%) of married men. The presence of children has a particularly strong effect on women's time stress. Compared to their counterparts without children at home, married mothers with full-time jobs were almost twice as likely to be severely time-stressed (38% versus 20%). In contrast, there was no difference in the incidence of severe time stress for employed married men with or without children. (Chart 5.13)

Chart 5.13

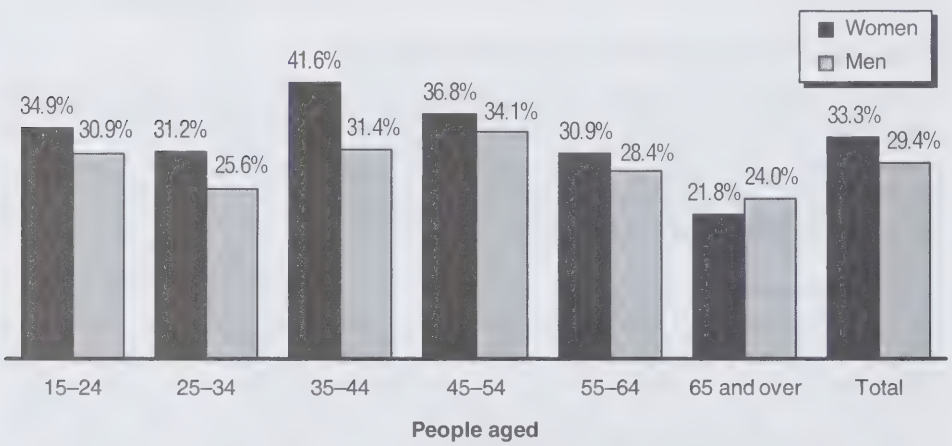
Percentage of people aged 25-44 employed full-time who are severely time stressed, 1998



Source: *Statistics Canada, General Social Survey.*

CANADA Chart 5.14

Percentage participating in formal volunteer activities, by age, 1997



Source: *Statistics Canada, National Survey on Giving, Volunteering and Participating.*

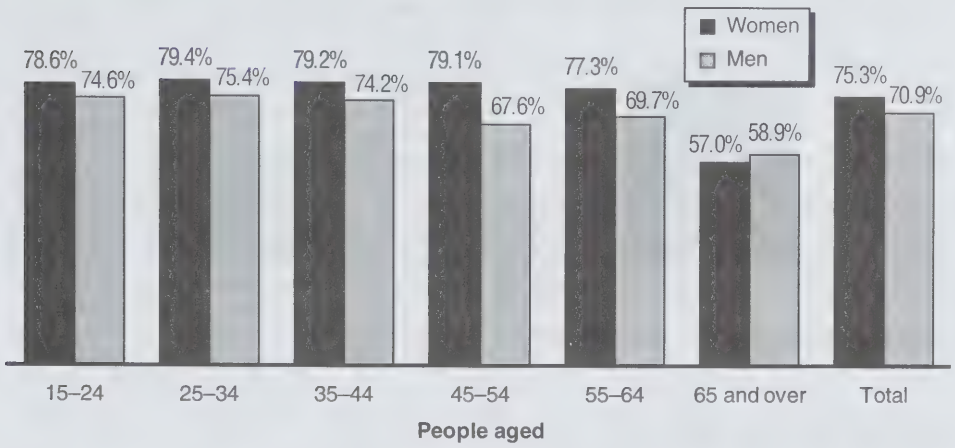
As well, almost half of married mothers with full-time employment and a pre-school-aged child at home were time-stressed. The amount of time spent on housework chores (for example, doing the laundry, grocery shopping, cooking and cleaning) did not appear to reduce the likelihood of the mother being time-stressed.

Volunteer work

Many women participate in their communities through formal volunteer activities. In 1997, over four million Canadian women aged 15 and over, 33% of the total, participated in these kinds of activities. This was slightly higher than the 29% of men aged 15 and over who volunteered. (Chart 5.14)

Chart 5.15

Percentage participating in informal volunteer activities, by age, 1997



Source: *Statistics Canada, National Survey on Giving, Volunteering and Participating.*

Among women, those between the ages of 35 and 54, as well as 15- to 24-year-olds, are the most likely to participate in formal volunteer activities. In 1997, 42% of women aged 35-44, 37% of those aged 45-54, and 35% of those aged 15-24 were involved in such activities, compared with 31% of women aged 25-34 or 55-64 and 22% of senior women. With the exception of senior women, many of whom are precluded from participating in volunteer activities because of ill health, women in all age ranges were more likely than their male counterparts to participate in formal volunteer activities.

Informal volunteer activity

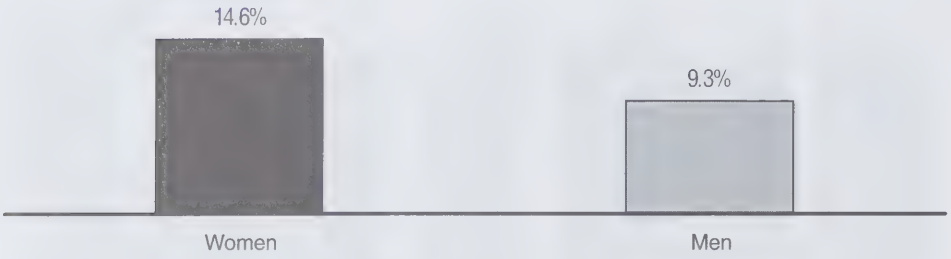
Even greater numbers of women participate in informal volunteer activities outside their homes. In 1997, 75% of all women aged 15 and over participated in such endeavours, compared with 71% of men. (Chart 5.15)

In contrast to formal volunteer activities, there is little variation in the percentages of women in different age groups engaging in informal volunteering. Indeed, in 1997, almost 80% of women in each age bracket under age 65 participated in these types of activities. The figure drops off to just under 60% among senior women, again in large part because of health limitations. Also, as with formal volunteer activities, women in all groups under age 65 were more likely to participate in informal volunteer activities than their male counterparts.

Women tend to engage in different types of informal volunteer activities than men. Women, for example, were more likely to help others with housework, do babysitting, visit with seniors, and provide care and support for the sick in 1997, while men were more likely to help with gardening, household maintenance, snow shovelling, shopping, and transportation, as well as writing letters and filling out forms.[16]

WOMEN IN CANADA Chart 5.16

Percentage of people aged 25-54 that provided both child care and care or assistance to seniors, 1996



Source: *Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.*

The Sandwich Generation

As Canadian society ages, an emerging issue is the so-called "sandwich generation," that is, parents who are looking after their own children and also caring for their own aging parents. One concern is that, as with most other family care responsibilities, these duties will fall disproportionately on women, thus further adding to the time crunch of Canadian women.

In fact, in 1996, almost one million Canadian women between the ages of 25 and 54, 15% of all women in this age range, provided both unpaid child care and care or assistance to a senior. In comparison, this was the case for only 9% of men in this age range. (Chart 5.16)

Nancy Zukewich is a senior analyst with the Housing, Family and Social Statistics Division.

1 *Source: Statistics Canada,* Households' Unpaid Work: Measurement and Valuation, *Catalogue no. 13-603E, no. 3, 1995.*

2 *The labour force or labour market includes people aged 15 and over who were working for pay or profit, who were unpaid workers in a family business, or who were actively seeking employment.*

3 *Source: Statistics Canada, "Attitudes towards Women, Work and Family," by Nancy Zukewich in* Canadian Social Trends, *Catalogue no. 11-008-XPE, Autumn 1997.*

4 *Source: Statistics Canada, "Employment after Childbirth," by Katherine Marshall in* Perspectives on Labour and Income, *Catalogue no. 75-001-XPE, Autumn 1999.*

5 *Source: Statistics Canada, Absence from Work Survey.*

6 *Source: Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey.*

7 *Source: Statistics Canada, "Characteristics of the self-employed,"* Labour Force Update, *Catalogue no. 71-005-XPB, Vol. 1, no. 3, 1997.*

8 *Source: Statistics Canada, "The rise in unionization by women," by Ernest B. Akyeampong in* Perspectives on Labour and Income, *Catalogue no. 75-001-XPE, Winter 1998.*

9 *The service industries include trade; finance, insurance and real estate; business, educational, and health and social services; accommodation, food and beverage services; other services; public administration; transportation; and communications.*

10 *The goods-producing industries include agriculture; resource-based industries such as mining, forestry and fishing; manufacturing; construction; and utilities.*

11 *People are considered unemployed if they are not working for pay or profit, but are available for work during the reference week and who either (1) have actively looked for work in the previous month; (2) are on temporary lay-off with an expectation of recall; or (3) have not actively looked for work, but have a new job to start within the next four weeks. The unemployment rate represents the number of unemployed persons as a percentage of the labour force.*

12 *Statistics Canada does not list "stay-at-home parent" as a possible reason for not being in the labour force. A stay-at-home parent is defined as a person in a husband-wife family with children under 16 at home, who did not have a job or business at the time of the survey, was not looking for employment, was not attending school, and was not permanently unable to work for pay or profit.*

13 *Source: Statistics Canada, "Stay-at-home dads," by Katherine Marshall in* Perspectives on Labour and Income, *Catalogue no. 75-001-XPE, Spring 1998.*

14 *Averaged over a seven-day week.*

15 *Those who agreed with seven out of 10 questions about time stress were determined to be severely time-stressed.*

16 *Source: Statistics Canada, National Survey on Giving, Volunteering and Participating, 1997.*

 Table 5.1

Employment, 1976-1999

	Women aged 15 and over		Men aged 15 and over		
	Total employed	% of all women employed	Total employed	% of all men employed	Women as a % of total employment
	000s		000s		
1976	3,630.7	42.0	6,145.5	72.7	37.1
1977	3,716.3	42.1	6,198.4	72.0	37.4
1978	3,891.7	43.2	6,320.5	72.0	38.1
1979	4,131.3	45.0	6,526.4	73.0	38.8
1980	4,339.3	46.3	6,630.9	72.8	39.6
1981	4,546.9	47.6	6,749.9	72.8	40.2
1982	4,510.9	46.5	6,436.2	68.4	41.2
1983	4,606.6	46.9	6,420.5	67.4	41.8
1984	4,746.7	47.7	6,553.4	68.0	42.0
1985	4,927.4	48.8	6,689.9	68.6	42.4
1986	5,118.9	50.1	6,860.1	69.5	42.7
1987	5,299.3	51.2	7,021.3	70.3	43.0
1988	5,532.1	52.7	7,178.2	70.9	43.5
1989	5,699.1	53.5	7,287.3	71.0	43.9
1990	5,806.2	53.7	7,277.8	69.9	44.4
1991	5,790.6	52.7	7,060.0	66.8	45.1
1992	5,789.6	52.0	6,970.4	65.0	45.4
1993	5,827.5	51.6	7,029.9	64.6	45.3
1994	5,934.0	51.9	7,177.0	65.2	45.3
1995	6,058.4	52.3	7,298.5	65.5	45.4
1996	6,116.6	52.1	7,346.0	65.0	45.4
1997	6,266.2	52.7	7,508.3	65.5	45.4
1998	6,479.0	53.8	7,661.4	65.9	45.8
1999	6,665.3	54.6	7,865.8	66.8	45.9

Source: *Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey.*

 Table 5.2

Percentage of the population aged 15 and over employed, by province, 1976-1999

	1976		1985		1990		1994		1999	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
					%					
Newfoundland	27.9	57.6	34.4	51.9	41.0	53.4	38.2	47.5	42.5	51.1
Prince Edward Island	38.5	67.1	44.4	62.7	49.2	62.8	49.4	59.1	52.5	61.3
Nova Scotia	35.9	65.7	41.7	61.2	47.9	63.5	46.5	58.2	50.1	60.7
New Brunswick	34.1	62.2	39.8	56.9	45.9	59.8	45.2	57.6	49.8	60.0
Quebec	37.4	70.4	44.1	65.9	48.6	67.0	47.4	62.2	50.2	64.0
Ontario	46.0	75.3	53.1	72.6	57.6	73.2	53.5	66.1	56.5	68.7
Manitoba	44.3	73.9	50.9	70.2	54.9	70.4	53.9	68.5	57.5	70.1
Saskatchewan	41.2	75.0	49.7	71.2	53.7	70.3	54.3	69.2	56.7	69.4
Alberta	49.2	80.1	56.0	74.5	59.8	75.4	59.4	72.3	62.2	74.6
British Columbia	41.7	71.3	46.7	64.0	53.6	68.6	55.0	67.5	54.8	64.8
Canada	**42.0**	**72.7**	**48.8**	**68.6**	**53.7**	**69.9**	**51.9**	**65.2**	**54.6**	**66.8**

Source: *Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey.*

 Table 5.3

Percentage employed, by age and educational attainment, 1999

	People aged							
	15-24		25-44		45 and over		Total	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
				%				
Educational attainment								
Less than Grade 9	19.1	31.0	39.1	59.3	11.3	26.2	14.6	31.3
Some secondary school	37.1	41.8	56.2	76.5	26.0	45.8	36.4	52.9
High school graduate	64.9	71.2	72.2	86.1	44.2	58.6	58.9	73.5
Some postsecondary	58.4	57.6	71.6	82.7	45.8	58.7	59.9	67.6
Postsecondary certificate or diploma[1]	73.3	73.5	79.4	89.6	50.0	63.3	67.1	77.5
University degree	73.9	69.2	83.3	90.7	65.7	69.6	76.5	80.4
Total	**53.9**	**55.4**	**74.3**	**85.7**	**37.7**	**53.4**	**54.6**	**66.8**

[1] *Includes trades certificate.*

Source: *Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey.*

 Table 5.4

Percentage employed, by age, 1976-1999

	People aged							
	15-24		25-44		45-54		55-64	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
	%							
1976	51.6	60.0	49.9	90.9	45.6	88.9	30.4	72.8
1977	51.3	59.7	51.0	90.1	45.3	88.1	29.7	71.4
1978	52.1	60.3	53.4	90.0	46.4	88.2	29.4	71.1
1979	54.5	62.8	55.6	90.7	48.1	88.4	31.5	71.4
1980	56.0	63.0	57.8	90.1	49.7	88.2	31.0	71.3
1981	57.0	63.3	60.2	90.1	51.7	88.5	31.0	70.7
1982	53.8	56.0	59.7	85.5	51.5	85.3	30.8	67.2
1983	54.0	55.1	60.5	84.0	52.8	85.0	30.1	65.4
1984	55.0	57.3	62.0	84.5	53.2	84.1	29.9	64.4
1985	56.0	58.4	63.5	85.5	56.2	84.6	30.6	63.1
1986	57.9	60.4	66.2	86.2	55.8	85.9	30.3	62.6
1987	59.4	62.4	67.4	87.0	58.4	86.9	31.4	61.4
1988	60.9	63.8	69.3	87.8	61.3	86.8	32.3	61.4
1989	61.8	64.5	70.4	87.8	63.3	87.1	31.7	61.1
1990	59.9	62.3	71.4	86.6	63.9	85.8	33.0	60.3
1991	57.7	56.9	70.4	83.5	64.3	84.2	32.4	57.1
1992	55.4	54.5	69.4	81.3	65.0	82.6	32.6	55.4
1993	53.5	53.5	69.1	81.6	65.3	82.0	32.4	54.3
1994	53.5	54.1	69.6	82.4	65.7	82.6	33.9	54.0
1995	53.5	54.2	70.5	83.1	66.8	83.1	33.4	53.7
1996	52.2	53.2	70.9	82.9	66.2	82.4	33.6	53.7
1997	50.3	52.7	72.2	84.0	68.1	82.7	34.3	55.1
1998	52.1	52.9	73.3	85.1	69.8	82.8	36.1	54.7
1999	53.9	55.4	74.3	85.7	70.8	83.8	37.3	56.9

Source: *Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey.*

Percentage of women with children employed, by age of youngest child, 1976-1999

	Youngest child under age 3	Youngest child aged 3-5	Total with youngest child under age 6	Youngest child aged 6-15	Total with children under age 16	Total under age 55 without children under age 16 living at home
			%			
1976	27.7	36.9	31.5	46.5	39.2	60.9
1977	29.4	37.8	32.7	47.4	40.3	60.7
1978	32.1	40.7	35.5	49.2	42.7	61.7
1979	34.8	43.0	37.9	50.9	44.7	63.7
1980	37.1	45.3	40.2	53.5	47.1	64.7
1981	39.6	46.7	42.3	56.2	49.4	65.5
1982	39.7	46.6	42.3	55.4	48.9	64.6
1983	42.4	48.0	44.6	55.1	49.9	65.5
1984	44.4	49.2	46.2	57.0	51.7	65.9
1985	46.9	52.1	48.9	59.0	54.0	67.3
1986	49.7	54.5	51.6	61.8	56.8	68.8
1987	50.6	56.4	52.9	63.8	58.4	69.6
1988	52.3	58.5	54.7	66.6	60.7	71.6
1989	53.2	59.4	55.7	69.2	62.5	72.6
1990	53.8	59.8	56.1	70.2	63.2	73.3
1991	54.8	60.3	56.9	69.1	63.0	72.4
1992	54.5	59.7	56.5	68.2	62.4	71.5
1993	55.1	59.8	56.9	68.7	62.8	71.6
1994	56.2	59.4	57.5	68.7	63.1	72.0
1995	56.7	60.7	58.3	70.0	64.2	72.9
1996	58.4	60.8	59.4	70.0	64.8	72.3
1997	59.2	62.4	60.6	71.3	66.2	73.4
1998	59.9	64.2	61.7	72.3	67.3	74.8
1999	60.7	66.3	63.1	73.6	68.7	76.0

Source: *Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey.*

Table 5.6

Licensed day care spaces, by type, 1971-1996

	Regular day care	Family day care	Total
1971	16,791	600	17,391
1975	65,281	4,671	69,952
1980	98,238	10,903	109,141
1982	109,535	14,427	123,962
1983	123,292	15,778	139,070
1984	149,965	21,689	171,654
1985	169,751	22,623	192,374
1986	197,802	22,715	220,517
1987	216,685	26,860	243,545
1988	232,787	30,839	263,626
1989	259,891	38,192	298,083
1990	282,465	38,159	320,624
1991	292,338	40,744	333,082
1992	302,790	47,890	350,680
1993	308,424	54,394	362,818
1994	332,173	62,115	394,788
1995	346,810	65,933	412,743
1996	366,451	69,027	435,478

Sources: *Health and Welfare Canada, and Human Resources Development Canada, Status of Day Care in Canada.*

Table 5.7

Ended compensated maternity absences, by type of compensation, 1980-1998

	Employment Insurance only	Employment Insurance plus other	Total Employment Insurance[1]	Other only	Total
			%		
1980	81.3	6.7	88.0	12.0	100.0
1981	82.3	7.9	90.1	9.9	100.0
1982	76.2	11.3	87.5	12.4	100.0
1983	77.2	11.9	89.1	10.9	100.0
1984	80.4	13.6	94.0	6.0	100.0
1985	76.1	14.3	90.4	9.6	100.0
1986	78.4	12.6	91.0	8.9	100.0
1987	78.5	13.2	91.7	8.3	100.0
1988	76.7	14.2	91.0	9.0	100.0
1989	78.2	15.4	93.6	6.4	100.0
1990	78.6	15.0	93.7	6.3	100.0
1991	76.9	17.0	93.9	6.1	100.0
1992	80.0	14.9	94.9	5.1	100.0
1993	77.1	18.5	95.7	4.3	100.0
1994	81.2	14.8	95.9	4.1	100.0
1995	72.4	20.2	92.6	7.4	100.0
1996	70.6	20.4	91.0	9.0	100.0
1997	73.7	17.2	90.9	9.1	100.0
1998	74.8	17.4	92.2	7.8	100.0

[1] *Includes maternity absences compensated solely by Employment Insurance, as well as those compensated by both Employment Insurance and an additional source.*

Source: *Statistics Canada, Absence from Work Survey.*

 Table 5.8

Absences of paid employees from work due to personal or family responsibilities, 1976-1999

	Women		Men	
	% of employed losing time per week	Average days lost per year	% of employed losing time per week	Average days lost per year
1976	1.7	1.9	1.0	0.7
1977	1.7	1.9	1.0	0.7
1978	1.7	2.0	1.1	0.7
1979	2.0	2.8	1.3	0.8
1980	2.1	2.9	1.1	0.7
1981	2.2	3.1	1.1	0.7
1982	2.1	3.0	1.1	0.7
1983	2.4	3.8	1.2	0.8
1984	2.6	4.1	1.2	0.8
1985	2.6	4.0	1.2	0.8
1986	2.6	4.3	1.2	0.8
1987	2.6	4.4	1.1	0.8
1988	2.9	4.8	1.3	0.9
1989	3.2	5.3	1.4	0.9
1990	3.2	5.4	1.4	0.9
1991	3.1	5.7	1.2	0.9
1992	3.0	6.1	1.1	0.8
1993	3.3	6.7	1.1	0.9
1994	3.3	6.6	1.2	0.9
1995	3.3	6.8	1.2	0.9
1996	3.4	6.7	1.1	0.9
1997	3.4	6.4	1.2	0.9
1998	3.3	6.3	1.2	1.0
1999	3.4	6.7	1.3	1.1

Source: *Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey.*

Part-time employment, 1976-1999

	Women employed part-time	% of women employed part-time[1]	% of men employed part-time[1]	Women as a % of total part-time employment
	000s			
1976	862.2	23.7	5.9	70.2
1977	912.2	24.5	6.3	70.1
1978	962.7	24.7	6.3	70.7
1979	1,050.8	25.4	6.6	71.0
1980	1,127.7	26.0	6.9	71.3
1981	1,198.1	26.3	7.3	71.0
1982	1,241.1	27.5	8.0	70.6
1983	1,297.3	28.2	8.8	69.7
1984	1,317.5	27.8	8.9	69.3
1985	1,402.4	28.4	8.8	70.3
1986	1,427.3	27.9	8.9	69.9
1987	1,455.4	27.4	8.7	70.4
1988	1,526.4	27.6	8.7	70.9
1989	1,537.5	27.0	8.8	70.6
1990	1,562.3	26.9	9.2	70.0
1991	1,628.5	28.1	10.2	69.4
1992	1,644.6	28.4	10.6	69.0
1993	1,692.0	29.0	11.2	68.2
1994	1,717.6	28.9	10.8	68.9
1995	1,735.5	28.6	10.8	68.8
1996	1,784.5	29.2	10.8	69.2
1997	1,843.1	29.4	10.5	70.0
1998	1,863.5	28.8	10.6	69.7
1999	1,868.3	28.0	10.3	69.7

[1] *Expressed as a percentage of total employed.*

Source: *Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey.*

Table 5.10

Percentage employed part-time,[1] by age, 1976-1999

	People aged							
	15-24		25-44		45-54		55-64	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
	%							
1976	25.0	18.0	21.9	1.5	24.2	1.4	24.7	3.6
1977	26.0	18.8	22.4	1.8	25.3	1.7	25.8	3.7
1978	26.6	18.8	22.3	1.7	26.1	1.8	25.9	4.2
1979	28.1	19.2	22.7	1.7	26.4	1.8	26.2	4.7
1980	28.3	20.1	23.2	1.9	27.4	2.0	27.8	4.4
1981	29.4	21.6	23.4	2.1	27.6	2.1	27.7	4.4
1982	32.7	24.9	23.5	2.6	28.3	2.6	29.9	4.9
1983	34.6	27.1	24.0	3.2	28.1	2.9	30.0	6.1
1984	35.9	27.7	23.0	3.2	27.3	2.8	30.2	5.6
1985	37.2	28.0	23.8	3.2	27.7	2.8	29.6	5.9
1986	37.9	28.6	23.0	3.2	26.9	2.7	30.4	6.6
1987	38.0	28.1	22.4	3.1	25.8	2.7	31.7	6.4
1988	38.8	29.8	22.4	2.9	26.5	2.4	31.2	6.9
1989	39.8	30.3	21.6	2.9	24.3	2.7	32.6	6.9
1990	41.1	32.6	21.5	3.3	24.3	2.6	31.0	7.3
1991	45.6	36.8	22.4	3.9	24.1	3.3	32.2	8.4
1992	47.5	39.0	22.7	4.3	23.7	3.6	32.6	8.8
1993	50.4	41.0	23.1	5.2	23.6	3.7	33.3	9.1
1994	51.4	39.6	22.9	4.8	23.2	3.8	34.0	9.5
1995	51.7	39.8	22.8	4.7	22.4	4.2	32.5	9.5
1996	53.4	39.0	23.2	5.1	23.3	4.2	32.4	9.8
1997	54.2	37.9	23.7	5.0	23.7	4.4	32.3	10.1
1998	53.6	38.2	22.8	4.9	23.0	4.4	32.4	10.4
1999	52.1	37.6	22.3	4.5	22.1	4.3	31.4	10.2

[1] *Expressed as a percentage of total employed.*

Source: *Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey.*

 Table 5.11

Reasons for part-time work, by age, 1999

	Women aged				Men aged			
	15-24	25-44	45 and over	Total	15-24	25-44	45 and over	Total
				%				
Own illness	--	1.8	3.7	1.9	--	3.5	6.4	2.6
Caring for children	2.7	32.5	3.8	15.6	--	2.2	--	0.7
Other personal/family responsibilities	1.0	6.1	8.1	5.1	0.7	2.0	2.7	1.4
Going to school	68.0	4.3	0.7	22.2	74.4	15.8	--	42.9
Personal preference	6.3	23.8	59.4	28.6	5.2	15.2	57.7	20.4
Other voluntary	0.4	1.6	1.4	1.2	0.4	4.6	3.5	2.1
Other[1]	21.3	29.9	22.9	25.4	19.0	56.5	28.4	29.8
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
Total employed part-time (000s)	**554.9**	**790.8**	**522.6**	**1,868.3**	**428.5**	**184.3**	**200.9**	**813.6**
% employed part-time[2]	52.1	22.3	25.4	28.0	37.6	4.5	7.6	10.3

[1] *Includes business conditions and unable to find full-time work.*
[2] *Expressed as a percentage of total employed.*
Source: *Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey.*

Table 5.12

Self-employment, 1976-1999

	Self-employed women	Self-employed men	% of women self-employed[1]	% of men self-employed[1]	Women as a % of total self-employment
	000s	000s			
1976	313.9	879.3	8.6	14.3	26.3
1977	333.4	892.8	9.0	14.4	27.2
1978	359.1	924.6	9.2	14.6	28.0
1979	384.9	951.3	9.3	14.6	28.8
1980	399.6	986.3	9.2	14.9	28.8
1981	410.9	1031.6	9.0	15.3	28.4
1982	433.8	1069.9	9.6	16.6	28.8
1983	451.8	1099.6	9.8	17.1	29.1
1984	473.6	1095.4	10.0	16.7	30.2
1985	522.3	1162.8	10.6	17.4	31.0
1986	491.5	1164.6	9.6	17.0	29.7
1987	512.5	1183.2	9.7	16.9	30.2
1988	541.0	1231.2	9.8	17.2	30.5
1989	560.9	1242.5	9.8	17.1	31.1
1990	577.0	1265.7	9.9	17.4	31.3
1991	583.4	1303.9	10.1	18.4	30.9
1992	610.3	1309.0	10.5	18.8	31.8
1993	654.8	1372.3	11.2	19.5	32.3
1994	680.2	1356.0	11.4	18.9	33.4
1995	706.2	1391.6	11.7	19.1	33.7
1996	743.0	1426.4	12.1	19.4	34.2
1997	829.2	1524.5	13.2	20.3	35.2
1998	863.0	1562.2	13.3	20.4	35.6
1999	862.4	1600.5	12.9	20.3	35.0

[1] *Expressed as a percentage of total employed.*

Source: *Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 5.13

Multiple job-holders as a percentage of total employed, by age, 1987-1999

	People aged								Women as a % of multiple job holders
	15-24		25-44		45 and over		Total		
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	
	%								
1987	4.5	4.7	4.1	4.3	3.0	3.6	4.0	4.2	41.6
1988	5.4	5.0	4.6	4.6	3.3	4.0	4.4	4.5	43.4
1989	5.4	4.6	4.6	4.8	3.5	4.2	4.5	4.6	43.6
1990	5.6	4.9	5.2	5.0	3.8	4.0	5.0	4.7	45.7
1991	5.6	4.9	5.2	4.8	4.0	4.0	5.0	4.6	46.9
1992	6.2	5.3	5.1	4.8	4.3	4.0	5.1	4.6	47.9
1993	7.1	5.5	5.1	5.1	4.4	4.1	5.3	4.9	47.5
1994	7.7	5.2	5.3	4.7	4.2	3.9	5.4	4.6	49.4
1995	7.6	5.3	5.4	4.7	4.2	3.8	5.4	4.4	50.2
1996	8.3	5.3	5.6	4.8	4.4	3.9	5.7	4.6	51.0
1997	8.0	5.3	6.0	4.9	4.4	3.8	5.8	4.6	51.4
1998	8.2	5.2	5.7	4.5	4.2	4.1	5.6	4.4	51.4
1999	7.7	5.3	5.7	4.6	4.4	3.8	5.6	4.4	51.8

Source: *Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 5.14

Distribution of employment, by industry, 1987-1999

	Women		Men		Women as a % of total employment	
	Service	Goods-producing	Service	Goods-producing	Service	Goods-producing
	%					
1987	84.4	15.6	59.6	40.4	51.6	22.6
1988	84.3	15.7	59.6	40.4	52.2	23.0
1989	84.6	15.4	59.4	40.6	52.7	22.9
1990	85.0	15.0	60.2	39.8	53.0	23.1
1991	85.7	14.3	61.8	38.2	53.2	23.4
1992	86.0	14.0	62.8	37.2	53.2	23.8
1993	86.7	13.3	63.5	36.4	53.1	23.2
1994	86.8	13.2	63.5	36.4	53.1	23.0
1995	86.6	13.4	63.4	36.5	53.1	23.4
1996	86.7	13.3	63.6	36.4	53.2	23.2
1997	86.5	13.4	63.4	36.5	53.2	23.5
1998	86.4	13.6	63.3	36.7	53.6	23.8
1999	86.4	13.5	63.3	36.7	53.6	23.8

Source: *Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey.*

Distribution of employment, by occupation, 1987, 1994 and 1999

	1987			1994			1999		
	Women	Men	Women as a % of total employed in occupation	Women	Men	Women as a % of total employed in occupation	Women	Men	Women as a % of total employed in occupation
					%				
Managerial									
Senior management	0.4	1.6	16.9	0.4	1.5	19.8	0.4	0.9	26.8
Other management	5.8	10.0	30.6	7.4	10.4	36.9	6.9	10.6	35.7
Total management	6.2	11.6	28.9	7.9	12.0	35.1	7.3	11.4	35.1
Professional									
Business and finance	1.9	2.1	40.7	2.4	2.4	44.6	3.1	2.7	49.4
Natural sciences/engineering/ mathematics	1.8	6.6	16.7	1.8	7.4	17.0	2.7	9.3	19.6
Social sciences/religion	2.3	1.9	47.8	3.5	2.2	56.5	3.7	2.3	58.2
Teaching	5.0	2.8	57.3	5.6	3.2	59.4	5.3	2.7	62.1
Doctors/dentists/other health	0.9	0.9	44.1	1.3	1.1	48.7	1.1	1.0	47.1
Nursing/therapy/other health-related	8.0	0.9	87.3	8.1	1.0	87.1	7.9	1.0	86.5
Artistic/literary/recreational	2.8	2.0	50.4	3.2	2.3	53.6	3.4	2.4	54.8
Total professional	22.8	17.3	49.8	25.8	19.6	52.2	27.2	21.4	51.8
Clerical and administrative	29.6	7.7	74.4	26.4	7.3	74.9	24.7	6.9	75.3
Sales and service	30.9	18.5	55.7	31.2	19.9	56.4	31.6	18.8	58.7
Primary	2.4	7.3	20.0	2.2	6.7	21.3	1.9	5.9	21.6
Trades, transport and construction	2.0	27.1	5.3	1.7	25.0	5.4	1.9	24.9	6.2
Processing, manufacturing and utilities	6.0	10.4	30.2	4.7	9.5	29.2	5.3	10.6	29.8
Total[1]	**100.0**	**100.0**	**43.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**45.3**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**45.9**
Total employed (000s)	**5,299.3**	**7,021.4**	--	**5,934.0**	**7,176.9**	--	**6,665.3**	**7,865.9**	--

[1] *Includes occupations that are not classified.*

Source: *Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey.*

Table 5.16

Distribution of farm operators, self-employed workers, and total labour force participants, by age, 1996

	Women			Men		
	Farm operators	Total self-employed[1]	Labour force participants	Farm operators	Total self-employed[1]	Labour force participants
	%					
People aged						
Under 35	16.8	25.9	42.6	15.5	21.0	40.4
35-44	30.6	33.3	28.5	26.0	29.8	27.4
45-54	26.8	24.9	20.3	24.1	26.2	20.4
55 and over	25.7	15.9	8.6	34.4	23.0	11.7
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
Total number (000s)	**97.3**	**579.0**	**6,804.7**	**288.3**	**1,223.3**	**8,000.8**

[1] *Includes people in incorporated and unincorporated businesses.*

Sources: *Statistics Canada, Census of Canada and Census of Agriculture.*

Unemployment, 1976-1999

	Women		Men	
	Total unemployed	Unemployment rate	Total unemployed	Unemployment rate
	000s	%	000s	%
1976	319.8	8.1	418.4	6.4
1977	372.0	9.1	487.7	7.3
1978	407.5	9.5	518.7	7.6
1979	390.7	8.6	472.5	6.8
1980	389.4	8.2	500.7	7.0
1981	406.9	8.2	518.6	7.1
1982	537.5	10.6	811.2	11.2
1983	596.3	11.5	899.2	12.3
1984	601.0	11.2	838.4	11.3
1985	591.8	10.7	793.0	10.6
1986	556.0	9.8	722.1	9.5
1987	534.8	9.2	656.2	8.5
1988	491.7	8.2	576.6	7.4
1989	479.7	7.8	580.5	7.4
1990	510.2	8.1	646.7	8.2
1991	619.9	9.7	859.6	10.9
1992	652.4	10.1	949.9	12.0
1993	692.2	10.6	954.8	12.0
1994	639.9	9.7	875.0	10.9
1995	602.2	9.0	791.0	9.8
1996	625.5	9.3	811.4	9.9
1997	609.3	8.9	769.3	9.3
1998	558.5	7.9	718.8	8.6
1999	521.9	7.3	668.2	7.8

Source: *Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey.*

 Table 5.18

Unemployment rates, by age, 1976-1999

	Labour force participants aged							
	15-24		25-44		45-64		Total[1]	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
	%							
1976	11.4	12.9	7.4	4.7	5.0	3.7	8.1	6.4
1977	12.9	14.4	8.0	5.4	6.0	4.6	9.1	7.3
1978	13.2	14.6	8.6	5.7	6.1	5.0	9.5	7.6
1979	12.3	13.0	7.7	5.1	5.6	4.3	8.6	6.8
1980	12.0	13.5	7.0	5.4	5.7	4.3	8.2	7.0
1981	11.6	13.7	7.5	5.5	5.2	4.4	8.2	7.1
1982	15.4	20.6	9.6	9.3	7.0	7.0	10.6	11.2
1983	16.2	21.8	10.4	10.7	8.0	7.9	11.5	12.3
1984	15.3	19.1	10.5	10.1	8.2	7.8	11.2	11.3
1985	14.3	17.8	10.3	9.3	7.8	7.6	10.7	10.6
1986	13.3	16.1	9.2	8.6	7.4	6.5	9.8	9.5
1987	11.9	14.4	8.7	7.7	7.4	6.1	9.2	8.5
1988	10.4	12.5	7.9	6.7	6.6	5.4	8.2	7.4
1989	9.5	12.2	7.9	6.8	5.9	5.4	7.8	7.4
1990	10.9	13.6	7.9	7.7	6.2	5.8	8.1	8.2
1991	12.8	18.5	9.4	10.2	7.9	7.5	9.7	10.9
1992	14.3	19.6	9.6	11.6	8.2	8.5	10.1	12.0
1993	14.3	19.6	10.3	11.4	8.9	8.9	10.6	12.0
1994	13.5	17.9	9.5	10.2	7.8	8.4	9.7	10.9
1995	13.0	16.3	8.6	9.3	7.4	7.4	9.0	9.8
1996	13.7	16.9	8.9	9.5	7.4	7.4	9.3	9.9
1997	15.2	17.1	8.1	8.6	6.8	6.9	8.9	9.3
1998	13.6	16.6	7.2	7.6	6.1	6.5	7.9	8.6
1999	12.6	15.3	6.6	6.9	5.4	5.8	7.3	7.8

[1] *Includes those aged 65 and over.*

Source: *Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 5.19

Unemployment rates, by age and province, 1999

	Labour force participants aged							
	15-24		25-44		45-64		Total[1]	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
	%							
Newfoundland	22.4	30.5	15.1	17.6	12.7	13.6	15.5	18.1
Prince Edward Island	14.9	20.6	14.7	14.8	11.2	12.7	13.9	14.8
Nova Scotia	15.8	20.4	8.3	9.1	5.2	7.3	8.8	10.3
New Brunswick	14.1	18.3	8.9	10.1	7.3	8.7	9.4	10.9
Quebec	14.3	17.0	7.7	8.7	7.9	8.0	8.8	9.7
Ontario	12.2	14.0	5.9	5.2	4.3	4.2	6.4	6.2
Manitoba	8.5	11.5	4.7	5.4	2.7	4.7	5.0	6.1
Saskatchewan	9.3	13.9	5.4	6.3	2.1	3.1	5.4	6.6
Alberta	10.8	12.7	4.5	4.8	2.9	3.6	5.5	6.0
British Columbia	12.4	16.1	7.3	8.6	5.1	6.4	7.5	9.0

[1] *Includes those aged 65 and over.*

Source: *Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 5.20

Unemployed, by reason for leaving last job, 1999

	Women		Men	
	000s	%	000s	%
Own illness/disability	8.8	1.7	9.7	1.4
Personal/family reasons	11.1	2.1	4.6	0.7
Going to school	22.1	4.2	29.6	4.4
Lost job/laid off	215.6	41.3	351.0	52.5
Retired	2.1	0.4	3.2	0.4
Other reasons	59.5	11.4	70.7	10.6
Had not worked in last year	134.3	25.7	140.1	21.0
Never worked	68.3	13.1	59.3	8.9
Total	**521.9**	**100.0**	**668.2**	**100.0**

Source: *Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 5.21

Employment Insurance beneficiaries, 1981-1998

	Women	Men	Women as a % of total beneficiaries
	000s		
1981	308.4	411.9	42.8
1982	443.0	694.7	38.9
1983	493.2	754.8	39.5
1984	496.4	698.0	41.6
1985	496.3	648.9	43.3
1986	482.5	613.0	44.0
1987	473.6	559.4	45.8
1988	476.2	538.4	46.9
1989	485.9	543.8	47.2
1990	510.6	610.3	45.6
1991	596.2	769.1	43.7
1992	616.4	771.9	44.4
1993	583.4	708.4	45.2
1994	523.0	591.8	46.9
1995	454.1	502.9	47.4
1996	435.5	475.9	47.8
1997	375.7	406.5	48.0
1998	342.4	396.9	46.3

Sources: *Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 73-202-XPB, and Labour Statistics Division.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 5.22

Employment Insurance beneficiaries, by type of benefit, 1998

	Women		Men		Women as a % of total beneficiaries
	000s	%	000s	%	
Type of benefit					
Regular	219.1	64.0	334.3	84.2	39.6
Maternal/parental[1]	76.5	22.3	1.3	0.3	98.4
Training	14.1	4.1	23.3	5.9	37.7
Sickness	21.6	6.3	14.8	3.7	59.3
Work sharing	0.9	0.3	1.7	0.4	33.7
Job creation	1.2	0.4	2.0	0.5	37.5
Fishing	1.4	0.4	10.1	2.5	12.3
Self-employment assistance	2.2	0.7	3.4	0.9	39.5
Other[2]	5.4	1.6	6.0	1.5	47.4
Total	**342.4**	**100.0**	**396.9**	**100.0**	**46.3**

[1] *Includes adoption.*

[2] *Includes programs administered under Part II of the* Employment Insurance Act.

Source: *Statistics Canada, Labour Statistics Division.*

CHAPTER 6

Income and Earnings

by Colin Lindsay

Women's incomes lower

Women generally have lower incomes than men. In 1997, the average annual pre-tax income of women aged 15 and over from all sources[1] was $19,800, just 62% the figure for men, who had an average income of $32,100 that year. (Chart 6.1)

The average incomes of women, however, have risen somewhat faster than those of men in recent years. In fact, the average income of women in 1997 ($19,800) was 14% higher than the figure in 1993, once the effects of inflation have been factored out. In contrast, the real average income of men rose only 6% in the same period. (Chart 6.1)

The average incomes of women are relatively low compared to those of men, in part, because women are more likely than men to have no source of personal income. In 1997, 9% of all women aged 15 and over had no income at all, more than twice the figure for men, only 4% of whom had no income that year. The percentage of women without income, though, has fallen in recent years. In 1997, 9% of all women aged 15 and over had no income at all, down from 12% in 1993. (Chart 6.2)

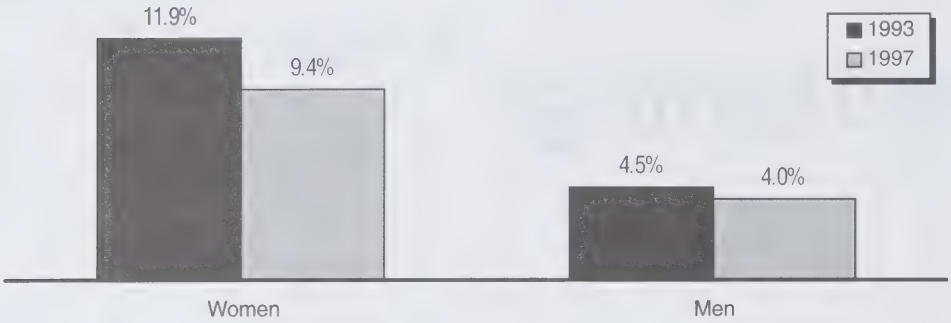
WOMEN IN CANADA Chart 6.1

Average income of women and men, 1993 and 1997



Source: *Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 13-207-XPB.*

Percentage of people aged 15 and over with no source of personal income, 1993 and 1997



Source: *Statistics Canada, Income Statistics Division.*

Income by age

Women between the ages of 35 and 54 have higher incomes than women in other age groups. In 1997, women aged 45-54 had an average income of just over $25,000, while the figure among women aged 35-44 was just under $25,000. In comparison, average incomes among women in other age groups ranged from $21,700 among those aged 25-34 to just $9,200 for women under age 25. (Table 6.1)

At all ages, though, women's incomes are lower than those of men, with the widest gaps occurring among those in older age groups. In 1997, the average income of 60- to 64-year-old women was only 49% than that of their male counterparts, while figures were 55% among those aged 55-59 and around 60% among both those aged 35-54 and seniors. In comparison, among those aged 25-34, the average income of women was 69% of that of men, while the figure was 80% for those under age 25. The average income of young women is relatively close to that of their male counterparts, however, largely as a result of the fact that the incomes of both young women and men tend to be very low.

Incomes vary by province

As with men, women in Ontario and the western provinces generally have the highest average incomes while those in the Atlantic provinces have the lowest. In 1997, women living in Ontario had an average income of $21,700, while the figure was $21,000 in British Columbia, $19,200 in Alberta, and $18,600 in Manitoba. At the same time, women in both Saskatchewan and Quebec had average incomes of around $18,000, whereas in the Atlantic provinces the figure ranged from $16,900 in Prince Edward Island to just $14,300 in Newfoundland. (Table 6.2)

The average incomes of women, though, are well below those of men in all provinces. In fact, in most provinces, women's incomes were only around 60% those of their male counterparts in 1997. The exceptions were Prince Edward Island, where the average income of women was over 70% of that of men, and Alberta, where the incomes of women were only 56% of those of their male counterparts.

Income and family status

The income situation of women also varies greatly depending on their family status. Most notably, lone-parent families headed by women have, by far, the lowest incomes of all family types. In 1997, families headed by female lone parents under age 65 had an average income of $25,400, only 39% as much as non-elderly two-spouse families with children ($64,800), and just 65% that of lone-parent families headed by men ($39,400). (Table 6.3)

As well, there has been almost no change in the average income of female-headed lone-parent families in the past two decades. In fact, there was a difference of less than $100 in the average income of these families in 1997 and 1980, once the effects of inflation have been accounted for. In contrast, the average income of two-parent families with children in 1997 was 5% higher than it had been in 1980.

Unattached women[2] also tend to have relatively low incomes. The average income of unattached women aged 15 and over was $21,900 in 1997, compared with $28,100 for unattached men. (Table 6.4)

Unattached women between the ages of 25 and 54 have higher average incomes than either their younger or older counterparts. In 1997, unattached women aged 35-44 had an average income of $30,700, while the figures were $29,800 for 45- to 54-year-olds and $26,200 for those aged 25-34. In comparison, the average income of unattached women in other age groups ranged from $21,700 among those aged 55-59 to just $15,200 among those under age 25.

The incomes of unattached women are lower than those of their male counterparts in all age categories, although the gap is relatively small for those aged 25-54. In 1997, for example, the incomes of unattached women aged 35-44 were 95% of those of unattached men in this age range, while the figures were 92% for those in the 45-54 age range and 90% among those aged 25-34. For other groups, the figure ranged from 86% for those under age 25 to 73% for those aged 55-59.

Women with low incomes

Women make up a disproportionate share of the population in Canada with low incomes. In 1997, 2.8 million women, 19% of the total female population, were living in low-income situations, compared with 16% of the male population. That year, females accounted for 54% of all Canadians classified as having low incomes. (Table 6.5)

All of the difference in the overall incidence of low income among women and men is accounted for by adult women, particularly senior women.[3] In 1997, 24% of women aged 65 and over, double the figure for senior men (12%), were classified as having low incomes. At the same time, 18% of women aged 18-64, compared with 15% of their male counterparts, were considered to be in a low-income situation. (Table 6.6)

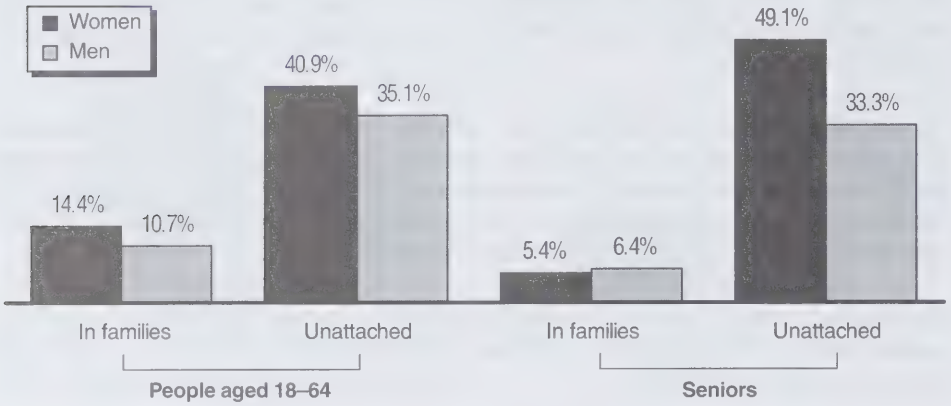
In contrast, female children were less likely than male children to live in a low-income family. In 1997, 19% of female children under the age of 18 lived in families with incomes below the Low Income Cut-offs, slightly less than the figure (21%) recorded for male children that year.

Low income and family status

The family status of adult women has a profound effect on their probability of being in a low-income situation. This is particularly true of senior women.

 Chart 6.3

People aged 18 and over living in a low-income situation, by family status, 1997



Source: *Statistics Canada, Income Statistics Division.*

In 1997, almost half of unattached senior women (49%) had low incomes, compared with just 5% of senior women living with their family. In fact, senior women living with their family were actually less likely than senior men in families to be classified as having low incomes that year, whereas unattached senior women were considerably more likely than their male counterparts to have low incomes (49% versus 33%). (Chart 6.3)

Women between the ages of 18 and 64 who live alone or with unrelated persons are also more likely than their male counterparts to have low incomes. In 1997, 41% of these women were considered to have low incomes, compared with 35% of unattached men in this age range. Even when they live in families, however, women aged 18-64 are more likely than their male counterparts to have low incomes. In 1997, 14% of these women who were in a family had low incomes, compared with 11% of men in this age range who were members of a family.

Young adult women who live alone or with an unrelated person are particularly likely to have low incomes. In 1997, two out of three unattached women aged 15-24 (67%) were classified as having incomes under the Low Income Cut-offs. More than half (55%) of unattached men in this age range also had low incomes that year, although this figure was still considerably below that for young women. (Chart 6.4)

Unattached women aged 55-64 are also characterized by a relatively high incidence of low income. In 1997, 48% of these women had incomes below the Low Income Cut-offs, compared with 35% of unattached women aged 45-54, 31% of those aged 25-34, and 26% of those aged 35-44. In fact, this latter group of unattached women were less likely than unattached men in this age range to have low incomes that year. At the same time, there was little difference in the incidence of low income among unattached women and men aged 25-34, while unattached women between the ages of 45 and 64 were somewhat more likely than their male counterparts to have low incomes.

Lone-parent families headed by women with low income

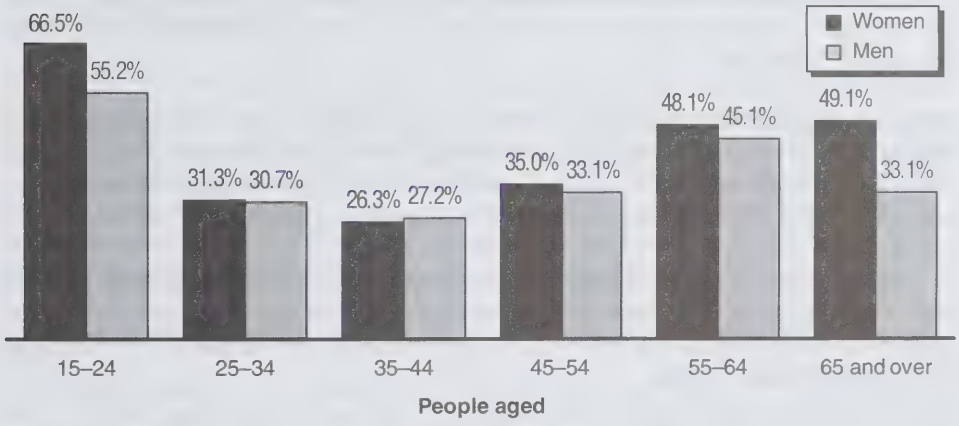
Much of the relatively high incidence of low income among non-elderly women living in families is accounted for by female lone parents. In 1997, 56% of all families headed by lone-parent mothers had incomes which fell below the Low Income Cut-offs. In comparison, just 12% of non-elderly two-parent families with children, and 24% of male lone-parent families, had low incomes that year. (Table 6.7)

In fact, there has been little overall improvement in the incidence of low income among female-headed lone-parent families in recent years. Indeed, the percentage of these women with low incomes in 1997 (56%) was only marginally lower than it was in 1980, when the figure was 57%.

As a result of these trends, lone-parent families headed by women are home to a disproportionate share of all children living in low-income situations. In 1997, 40% of all children in a low-income family were living with a single female parent, whereas these families accounted for only 13% of all children under age 18 that year. (Chart 6.5)

WOMEN IN CANADA Chart 6.4

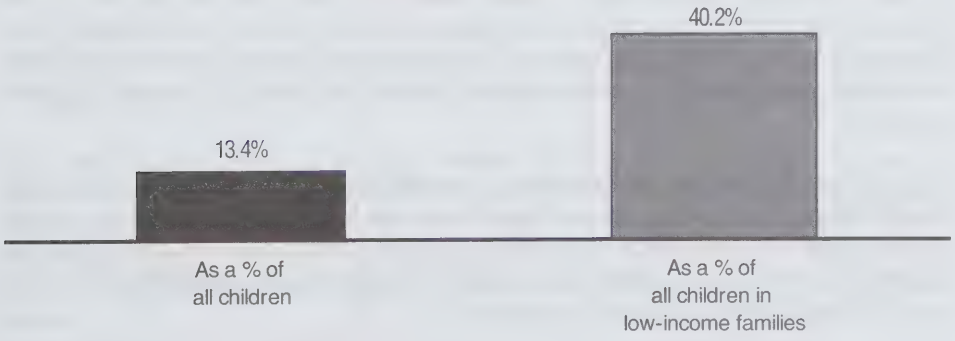
Percentage of unattached individuals living in a low-income situation, by age, 1997



Source: *Statistics Canada, Income Statistics Division.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Chart 6.5

Children[1] in lone-parent families headed by women as a percentage of all low-income children,[2] 1997



[1] *Includes children under age 18 living at home.*
[2] *Based on Statistics Canada's Low Income Cut-offs, 1992 base.*
Source: *Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 13-569-XPB.*

WOMEN IN CANADA

The Low Income Cut-offs

Statistics Canada's Low Income Cut-offs are used to classify families and unattached individuals into "low-income" and "other" groups. Families or individuals are classified as "low income" if they spend, on average, at least 20 percentage points more of their pre-tax income than the Canadian average on food, shelter, and clothing. Using 1992 as the base year, families and individuals with incomes below the Low Income Cut-offs usually spend more than 54.7% of their income on these items and are considered to be in straitened circumstances. The number of people in the family and the size of the urban or rural area where the family resides are also taken into consideration.

Note, however, that Statistics Canada's Low Income Cut-offs are not official poverty lines. They have no officially recognized status as such, nor does Statistics Canada promote their use as poverty lines.

Major sources of income

As with men, earnings from employment, including wages and salaries, as well as net income from self-employment, make up the largest source of the income of women in Canada. In 1997, 72% of all the income of women came from these sources, while 18% came from government transfer programs,[4] 5% came from investments, 3% was income from private retirement pensions, and another 2% was money from other sources.[5] (Table 6.8)

While employment earnings account for the largest share of the income of women, 72% in 1997, this figure is well below that of men who received almost 81% of all their income from these sources. In addition, in terms of the actual dollars involved, women had, on average, $11,500 less in employment earnings that year than did men.

In contrast, women receive a larger portion of their total income than men from government transfer payments. In 1997, 18% of the total income of women came from transfer payments, almost double the figure of men, who received only about 10% of their total income from these sources.

In terms of the actual dollars, however, women received only about $400 more in transfer payments than men in 1997. That year, women received, on average, $3,600 in benefits from government transfer programs, compared with $3,200, on average, for men.

Old Age Security payments, including Guaranteed Income Supplements, make up the largest component of government transfer benefits received by women. In 1997, 6% of all the income of women came from this source, while 4% came from the Canada and Quebec Pension Plans, 2% were social assistance benefits, another 2% were unemployment insurance payouts, and 4% were from other government transfer programs.

Not surprisingly, there are considerable differences in the impact of these government transfer programs on women depending on their age. Indeed, 64% of all the income of senior women in 1997 came from government transfers. That year, 38% of all the income of senior women came in the form of Old Age Security benefits, while 22% were Canada/Quebec Pension Plan payouts.[3]

Women also receive a larger share of their income from other sources, including alimony and child support payments from a former spouse. In 1997, 2% of all income of women came from these sources, twice the figure for men, who got only 1% of their income from other sources. (Table 6.8)

As reported in the previous edition of *Women in Canada*,[6] though, alimony and child support payments tend to account for a significant portion of the income of those families, especially female-headed lone-parent families, that do receive these payments.

Indeed, there are substantial differences in the primary sources of income of female-headed lone-parent families and other non-elderly families. In particular, government transfer payments make up a relatively large share of the income of lone-parent families headed by women. In 1997, 27% of all income of these families, versus 11% of that of male-headed lone-parent families and just 6% of that for two-parent families with children, came from transfer payments. (Table 6.9)

Female-headed lone-parent families also receive a larger proportion of their income from other sources, such as alimony and child support payments, than other families. In 1997, other money income accounted for 7% of the income of lone-parent families headed by women, compared with about 2% of the income of male-headed lone-parent families and just 1% of that of two-parent families with children. This may be attributed to the fact that some lone-parent mothers receive alimony and child support payments from their former spouse.

In contrast, female-headed lone-parent families get a much smaller share of their income from employment-related sources than other non-elderly families. In 1997, just 61% of the income of female-headed lone-parent families came from these sources, compared with 77% of that of families with a lone male head and 83% of that of two-parent families with children. In fact, in terms of actual dollars, female-headed lone-parent families received only about one dollar in employment earnings for every four dollars earned by two-parent families with children that year.

Average earnings still lower

The average earnings of employed women are still substantially lower than those of men. In 1997, employed women had average earnings of just over $21,000, a figure that was only 64% of that of all men with jobs. (Table 6.12)

Even when employed on a full-time, full-year basis the earnings of women remain well below those of their male counterparts. In 1997, women working full-time, full-year had average earnings of just under $31,000, or 73% what men employed full-time, full-year made that year.

The gap between the earnings of women and men, however, is considerably smaller than it was two decades ago. Women's full-time, full-year earnings in 1997 were 73% of those of men, up from 68% in 1990 and around 64% in the early 1980s.

The long-term narrowing of the gap between the earnings of women and men in recent years can be attributed to both increases in the earnings of women and decreases in the earnings of men. Between 1975 and 1992, for example, the earnings of women employed full-time, full-year rose almost 20%, once the effects of inflation were accounted for, whereas men's earnings actually declined by a few dollars in the same period.

Women contributing to pension plans

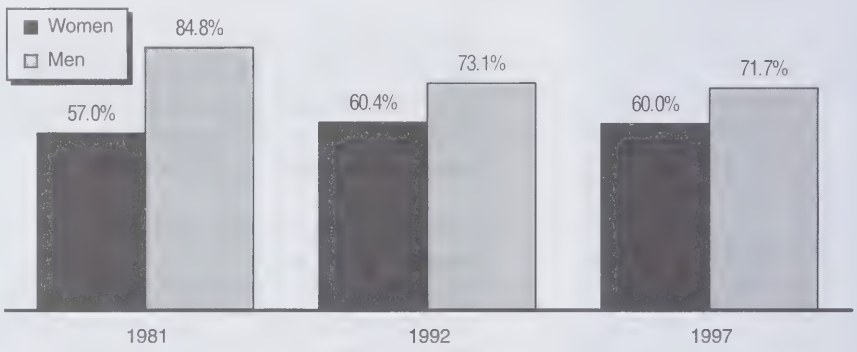
There have been some interesting changes in the pattern of women and men contributing to the various forms of retirement pension plans in recent years. On one hand, a slightly greater proportion of women are now covered by employer-sponsored pension plans than two decades ago. In 1997, 40% of all employed women were members of such plans, up from 38% in 1980. (Table 6.10)

In the same period, however, the proportion of men covered by employer-sponsored plans has dropped sharply from 54% in 1980 to 42% in 1997. As a result, almost as many female workers are now covered by a private pension as are male workers. Indeed, by 1997, women made up 44% of all workers covered by employer-sponsored pensions, compared with just 31% in 1980.

Overall, there has also been a slight increase in the proportion of women in Canada contributing to the Canada/Quebec Pension Plan in the past two decades. In 1997, 60% of all women aged 20-64 contributed to this program, up from 57% in 1981. In contrast, the share of working age men participating in this program has fallen in the same period. (Chart 6.6)

Chart 6.6

Contributors to Canada/Quebec Pension Plans as a percentage of people aged 20-64, 1981, 1992 and 1997

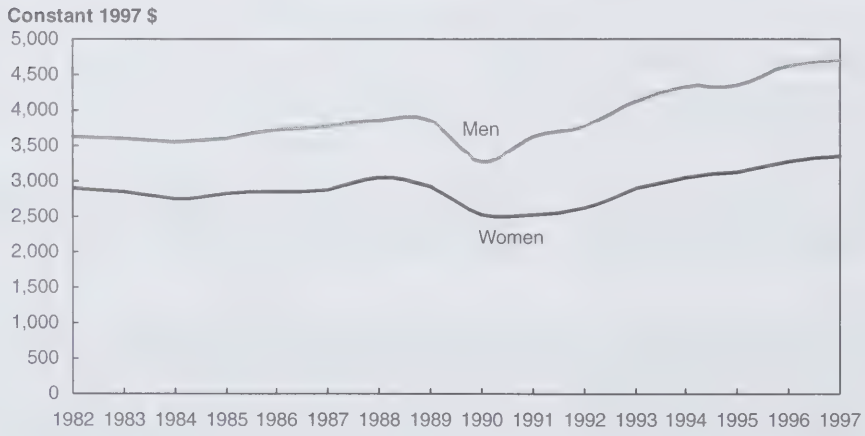


Source: *Revenue Canada, Taxation Statistics.*

There have been greater increases in the proportion of women contributing to Registered Retirement Savings Plans (RRSPs) in the last two decades. In 1997, 2.8 million women reported contributing to an RRSP; together, these women represented 26% of all female taxfilers that year, up from less than 20% in 1990 and just 10% in 1982. Women, though, were still somewhat less likely than men to contribute to an RRSP in 1997: 26% versus 33%. (Table 6.11)

Chart 6.7

Average RRSP contributions in constant 1997 dollars, 1982-1997



Source: *Revenue Canada, Taxation Statistics.*

Women also tend to contribute less to their RRSPs than men. In 1997, women who purchased RRSPs contributed an average of just under $3,400, about $1,300 less than the average contribution for men. Since RRSP contribution limits are linked to earnings, this difference may be related to the fact that women's earnings are lower, on average, than men's. (Chart 6.7)

The average RRSP contribution made by women, however, has increased in recent years. After accounting for inflation, the average contribution of women to RRSPs was 33% higher in 1997 than in 1991. In comparison, the average contribution by men rose 30% in the same period.

Since 1992, however, there has been little change in the earnings ratio of women and men employed on a full-time, full-year basis. This has occurred because the earnings of both have been stagnant in this period.

Earnings and education

Women with a university degree earn considerably more than women with lower levels of education. Female university graduates working full-time, full-year earned an average of $42,700 in 1997, whereas no other educational grouping of women made over $30,000 that year. Indeed, women with less than a Grade 9 education earned only $21,400 that year. (Table 6.13)

Whatever their educational attainment, however, women's earnings are lower than those of their male counterparts. Even female university graduates employed full-time, full-year earned only 74% as much as their male colleagues in 1997, while the figures were 71% among women with a non-university postsecondary certificate, 73% among high school graduates, 70% among those with less than Grade 9, and just 65% for those who had attended, but had not graduated, from high school.

Earnings and occupation

Women in professional and related occupations have considerably higher incomes than women in other occupational groups. In 1997, women employed on a full-time, full-year basis in each of the natural sciences and teaching had average earnings of over $40,000, while women in management and administration positions, as well as those in either health-related or social science professions, made between $35,000 and $40,000. In contrast, the average annual earnings of women employed full-time, full-year in non-professional occupations ranged from just over $30,000 for those employed in transportation to only $18,400 for those working in agriculture. (Table 6.14)

Women's earnings, though, are well below those of men in all occupational categories; there is, however, no real pattern in this diversity. Among those in professional categories, for example, the 1997 earnings ratio for women and men employed full-time, full-year ranged from just over 80% among professionals employed in the natural sciences and teachers to close to 65% for those in management and administration, as well as professionals in social science and religious occupations. At the same time, the figure among non-professionals also ranged from over 80% among those in clerical positions to under 65% among those in each of service, manufacturing, and material handling jobs.

Earnings and age

Women between the ages of 35 and 54 have higher average earnings than other women. In 1997, women aged 35-44 and 45-54 employed full-time, full-year had average earnings of around $33,000, compared with around $29,000 for those aged 25-34 and 55 and over and just over $21,000 for 15- to 24-year-olds. (Table 6.15)

The earnings of women compared to those of men, however, tend to be highest in younger age groups. In 1997, the female-to-male earnings ratio was 81% for those aged 15-24 working full-time, full-year, whereas the figure was 76% for women aged 25-34, 73% for 35- to 44-year-olds, 70% for those aged 45-54, and 66% among those aged 55 and over.

Earnings and marital status

Overall, there is little variation in the earnings of women depending on their marital status. In 1997, both single and married women who were employed full-time, full-year earned just over $30,000, while other women earned almost $34,000. (Table 6.15)

The difference between the earnings of single and married women, however, is quite large in certain age groups. For example, single women aged 45-54 who worked full-time, full-year in 1997 earned an average of over $40,000, or almost $9,000 more than married women in this age range. In fact, single women aged 45-54 actually made more than single men in this age group. In contrast, there were only small differences in the earnings of single and married women in other age ranges. The earnings of women in these other age groups were also all lower than those of their male counterparts, with the figure among those who were single ranging around 90%, while among those who were married it was between 60% and 70%.

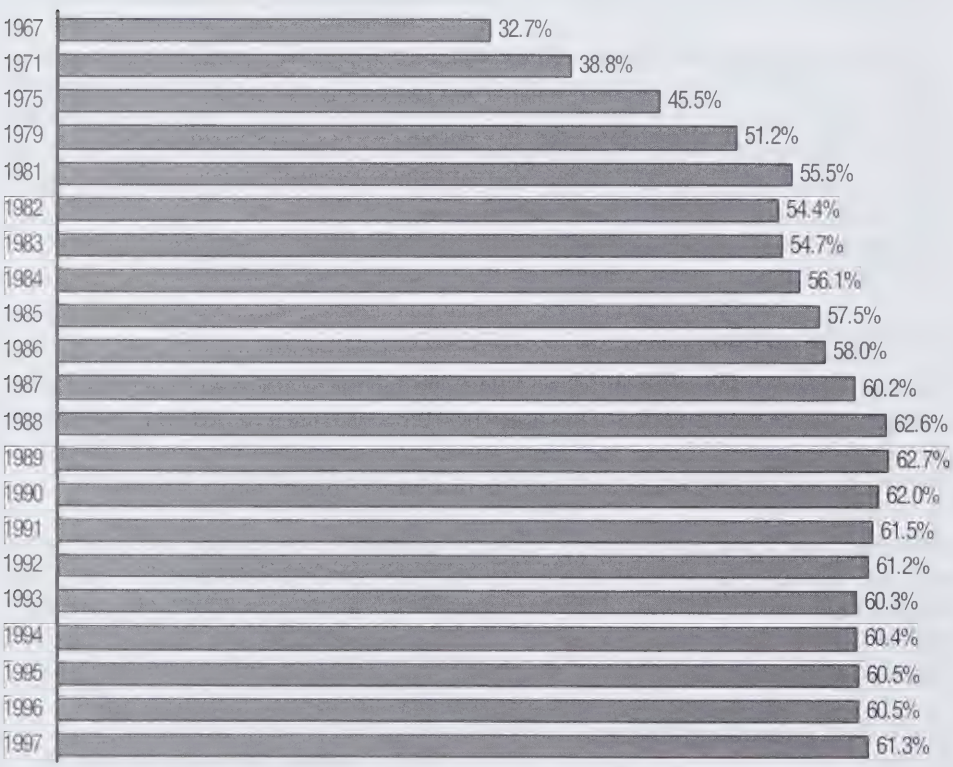
Earnings of wives in dual-earner families

The influx of married women into the labour force over the past three decades has resulted in an increase in the number of dual-earner families. In 1997, both spouses were employed in 61% of all two-spouse families, including both married and common-law couples, almost double the figure in 1967, when both spouses were employed in just 33% of such families. (Chart 6.8)

There has, however, been almost no change in the percentage of two-spouse families with two earners in the 1990s. In fact, the proportion of husband-wife families with two-earners in 1997 (61%) was actually slightly below the figure in the late 1980s, when dual-earner families made up 63% of all husband-wife families.

Chart 6.8

Dual-earner families as a percentage of all husband-wife families,[1] 1967-1997



[1] *Includes those in common-law unions.*

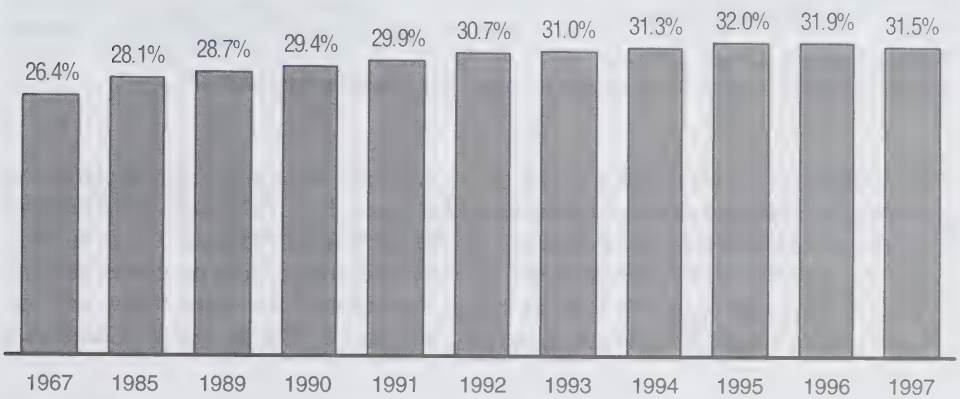
Source: *Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 13-215-XPB.*

Not surprisingly, as the number of dual-earner families has grown, the earnings of wives in these families has also accounted for a growing share of the total income of these families. In 1997, wives' earnings represented 32% of the income of dual-earner families, up from 29% in 1989 and 26% in 1967. (Chart 6.9)

In addition, there has been an increase in the percentage of wives who earn more than their husbands over the past 25 years. In 1997, 23% of wives in dual-earner families had employment earnings that were greater than those of their husbands, up from 16% in 1981 and 11% in 1967. (Chart 6.10)

Chart 6.9

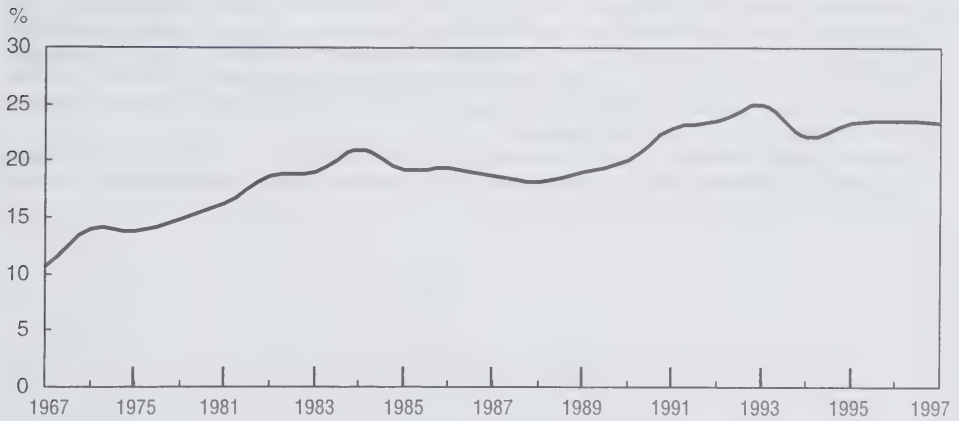
Earnings of wives as a percentage of total income in dual-earner families,[1] 1967-1997



[1] *Includes those in common-law unions.*
Source: *Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 13-215-XIB.*

Chart 6.10

Percentage of dual-earner families[1] in which wives earn more than husbands, 1967-1997



[1] *Includes those in common-law unions.*
Note: *Between 1967 and 1981, data was collected in '71, '75 and '79.*
Source: *Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 13-215-XIB.*

Percentage of dual-earner families[1] with low-income, by presence of wives' earnings, 1997



[1] *Includes those in common-law unions.*
Sources: *Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 13-215-XPB, and Income Statistics Division.*

The relative importance of wives' earnings to total family income is also reflected in the percentage of families whose income would fall below the Low Income Cut-offs were it not for the contribution of wives' earnings. In 1997, almost 200,000 dual-earner families, 5% of the total, had low incomes. However, if wives' earnings were deducted from the income of these families, it is estimated that the number of these families with low incomes would jump to almost three-quarters of a million, or 18% of the total. (Chart 6.11)

Colin Lindsay is the manager of the Target Groups Project.

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[1] *Income includes employment earnings (wages and salaries as well as net income from self-employment), government transfer payments, investment income, and other money income.*

[2] *An unattached individual is a person living alone or in a household where she/he is not related to other household members.*

[3] *For more information on the low-income situation of senior women, see Chapter 12.*

[4] *Government transfer payments include all social welfare payments from federal, provincial, and municipal goverments, including Child Tax Benefits, Old Age Security and Guaranteed Income Supplements, Spouse's Allowances, Canada and Quebec Pension Plan benefits, Employment Insurance, worker's compensation, training allowances, veteran's pensions, social assistance, and pensions to the blind and persons with disabilities. Refundable tax credits and Goods and Services Tax Credits are included as income.*

[5] *Other money income includes alimony and child support payments, annuities, superannuation, scholarships, and other items not included in other categories.*

[6] Women in Canada, *Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 89-503-XPE, 1995. For more information on this topic, see "Alimony and Child Support", by Diane Galarneau in* Canadian Social Trends, *Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 11-008-XPE, Spring 1993.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 6.1

Average income of individuals, by age, 1997

	Women	Men	Women's income as a % of men's
		$	
People aged			
15-24	9,220	11,558	79.8
25-34	21,692	31,487	68.9
35-44	24,626	39,641	62.1
45-54	25,321	42,199	60.0
55-59	21,263	38,456	55.3
60-64	14,891	30,522	48.8
65 and over	16,070	26,150	61.4
Total aged 15 and over	**19,847**	**32,104**	**61.8**

Source: *Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 13-207-XPB.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 6.2

Average income of women and men, by province, 1997

	Women	Men	Women's income as a % of men's
		$	
Newfoundland	14,289	22,912	62.4
Prince Edward Island	16,920	23,861	70.9
Nova Scotia	16,105	26,457	60.9
New Brunswick	16,138	26,253	61.4
Quebec	18,275	29,697	61.5
Ontario	21,731	34,562	62.9
Manitoba	18,635	30,595	60.9
Saskatchewan	18,080	29,157	62.0
Alberta	19,202	34,001	56.4
British Columbia	21,044	33,214	63.4
Canada	19,847	32,104	61.8

Source: *Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 13-207-XPB.*

Average family income, by family type, 1980-1997

	Non-elderly families[1]						
				Lone-parent families[2]			
	Two-parent families with children[2]	Married couples without children	Other couples[3]	Female head	Male head	Other families	Elderly families[4]
	Constant 1997 $						
1980	61,696	58,680	79,571	25,532	40,596	43,727	39,560
1981	60,860	56,031	80,435	25,666	46,441	46,915	37,826
1982	59,435	53,907	78,307	23,580	42,452	46,392	39,799
1983	59,226	54,575	74,782	23,381	38,492	42,017	37,266
1984	59,498	53,862	72,936	24,247	40,866	44,258	39,813
1985	61,240	54,962	76,445	24,277	39,562	44,003	40,221
1986	62,469	54,949	80,435	24,040	40,472	46,930	40,267
1987	63,927	57,006	79,133	24,691	49,396	46,268	38,895
1988	65,124	58,896	81,268	24,946	43,402	47,594	39,957
1989	67,054	58,021	83,228	26,854	50,839	49,262	44,911
1990	65,687	58,276	84,288	25,174	41,337	49,167	44,222
1991	64,141	57,911	79,990	24,145	40,314	47,712	43,398
1992	64,589	60,053	79,439	25,551	42,583	43,496	41,976
1993	63,049	57,029	79,439	24,403	36,705	45,597	42,763
1994	64,424	57,084	80,730	25,364	36,764	47,309	42,366
1995	64,048	57,409	78,759	25,881	37,640	46,324	44,283
1996	65,015	57,590	82,495	24,432	40,065	49,603	43,450
1997	64,814	56,889	80,830	25,445	39,371	49,996	43,351

[1] *Includes families with head less than age 65.*
[2] *Includes families with children less than age 18 living at home.*
[3] *Includes families with children aged 18 and over and/or other relatives.*
[4] *Includes families with head aged 65 and over.*

Source: *Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 13-207-XPB.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 6.4

Average income of unattached individuals,[1] by age, 1997

	Women	Men	Women's income as a % of men's
	$		
People aged			
15-24	15,248	17,681	86.2
25-34	26,152	29,059	90.0
35-44	30,675	32,422	94.6
45-54	29,764	32,472	91.7
55-59	21,708	29,748	73.0
60-64	18,944	23,078	82.1
65 and over	18,399	24,340	75.6
Total aged 15 and over	**21,945**	**28,106**	**78.1**

[1] *Includes only individuals with some income.*
Source: *Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 13-207-XPB.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 6.5

People[1] with low income,[2] 1980-1997

	Females with low income	% of females with low income	Males with low income	% of males with low income	Females as a % of all people with low income
	000s		000s		
1980	2,198	18.1	1,673	13.9	56.8
1981	2,205	18.0	1,705	14.0	56.4
1982	2,370	19.1	1,895	15.4	55.6
1983	2,546	20.3	2,107	17.0	54.7
1984	2,617	20.7	2,120	17.0	55.2
1985	2,503	19.6	1,991	15.8	55.7
1986	2,367	18.3	1,888	14.8	55.6
1987	2,386	18.2	1,867	14.5	56.1
1988	2,327	17.6	1,713	13.1	57.6
1989	2,155	16.0	1,614	12.2	57.2
1990	2,381	17.4	1,798	13.4	57.0
1991	2,529	18.2	2,013	14.7	55.7
1992	2,644	18.8	2,113	15.2	55.6
1993	2,873	20.0	2,271	16.1	55.9
1994	2,787	19.1	2,154	15.0	56.4
1995	2,865	19.5	2,340	16.2	55.0
1996	2,957	19.9	2,337	16.0	55.9
1997	2,843	18.9	2,380	16.1	54.4

[1] *Includes children under age 18.*
[2] *Based on Statistics Canada's Low Income Cut-offs, 1992 base.*
Source: *Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 13-207-XPB.*

Percentage of people living in a low-income situation,[1] by age, 1980-1997

	People aged					
	Under 18		18-64		65 and over	
	Female	Male	Women	Men	Women	Men
	%					
1980	16.1	15.5	15.5	11.6	39.8	26.6
1981	16.6	16.2	15.0	11.5	39.5	26.5
1982	19.6	18.6	16.1	13.5	36.0	20.0
1983	19.4	20.2	17.6	14.9	38.3	22.7
1984	21.0	21.0	18.1	14.6	35.1	22.0
1985	19.6	19.3	17.1	13.8	33.9	20.1
1986	17.5	17.7	16.1	13.0	32.0	19.3
1987	18.0	17.3	15.9	12.9	31.2	17.6
1988	16.5	15.7	15.2	11.6	32.7	16.6
1989	15.1	15.5	13.9	10.6	28.7	14.0
1990	18.2	17.3	15.2	11.8	27.1	13.7
1991	18.7	19.0	16.2	13.2	27.8	14.0
1992	19.3	19.1	17.0	14.1	26.8	12.7
1993	21.7	21.0	17.6	14.3	28.8	14.8
1994	20.1	18.9	17.5	14.2	25.8	10.7
1995	21.4	20.6	17.7	15.3	24.6	10.9
1996	21.4	20.9	17.8	14.6	27.0	12.8
1997	19.0	20.6	17.8	15.1	24.0	11.7

[1] *Based on Statistics Canada's Low Income Cut-offs, 1992 base.*

Source: *Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 13-207-XPB.*

 Table 6.7

Percentage of families with low income,[1] by family type, 1980-1997

	Non-elderly families[2]						
				Lone-parent families[3]			
	Two-parent families with children[3]	Married couples without children	Other couples[4]	Female head	Male head	Other families	Elderly families[5]
	%						
1980	9.7	6.7	4.1	57.3	25.4	25.2	19.2
1981	10.2	7.3	4.2	53.5	18.7	17.5	20.4
1982	11.9	8.9	4.9	59.3	26.1	18.6	14.9
1983	12.6	9.6	6.0	60.7	28.6	24.3	15.5
1984	13.1	9.9	6.1	62.3	27.0	20.3	16.9
1985	11.8	8.5	4.7	61.1	26.9	21.5	15.2
1986	10.9	9.0	4.3	57.7	23.4	17.6	14.3
1987	10.3	9.0	4.5	58.3	18.4	17.7	12.9
1988	9.1	7.9	3.1	55.3	24.3	18.8	12.8
1989	8.7	7.3	2.8	52.9	20.3	15.6	10.1
1990	9.8	8.1	3.2	59.5	25.5	18.4	7.6
1991	10.8	9.1	3.7	60.3	22.6	17.4	8.2
1992	10.6	8.6	5.6	56.9	18.9	20.6	8.7
1993	12.2	9.6	3.6	59.0	30.9	19.9	9.7
1994	11.5	9.4	5.5	56.4	32.3	19.3	7.1
1995	12.8	10.1	5.2	56.8	30.7	18.8	7.8
1996	11.8	10.0	5.3	60.8	31.3	17.8	8.7
1997	12.0	10.6	5.3	56.0	23.5	18.3	6.8

1 *Based on Statistics Canada's Low Income Cut-offs, 1992 base.*
2 *Includes families with head less than age 65.*
3 *Includes families with children less than age 18 living at home.*
4 *Includes families with children aged 18 and over and/or other relatives.*
5 *Includes families with head aged 65 and over.*

Source: *Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 13-207-XPB.*

Composition of income of all individuals with income, 1997

	Women		Men	
	$	%	$	%
Wages and salaries	13,432	67.7	23,266	72.5
Net income from self-employment	906	4.6	2,579	8.0
Total employment income	14,338	72.2	25,845	80.5
Investment income				
Interest/bonds	479	2.4	454	1.4
Dividends	133	0.7	262	0.8
Other	131	0.7	235	0.7
RRSPs	155	0.8	198	0.6
Total investment income	898	4.5	1,149	3.6
Income from government transfers				
Old Age Security[1]	1,135	5.7	760	2.4
C/QPP	858	4.3	1,003	3.1
Employment Insurance	328	1.7	505	1.6
Social assistance	449	2.3	377	1.2
Other government transfers	817	4.1	534	1.7
Total government transfers	3,587	18.1	3,179	9.9
Retirement pensions	650	3.3	1,574	4.9
Other money income	375	1.9	357	1.1
Total	**19,847**	**100.0**	**32,104**	**100.0**

[1] *Includes Guaranteed Income Supplements.*

Source: *Statistics Canada, Income Statistics Division.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 6.9

Composition of family income, by family structure, 1997

	Non-elderly families[1]						
	Two-parent families with children[2]	Married couples without children	Other couples[3]	Lone-parent families[2]		Other families	Elderly families[4]
				Female head	Male head		
	%						
Wages and salaries	83.3	78.3	80.2	60.6	76.8	71.4	18.1
Net income from self-employment	7.5	7.6	7.1	3.9	8.0	7.0	3.8
Investment income	1.5	2.8	2.5	1.0	2.5	2.7	10.9
Transfer payments	6.3	5.4	5.7	27.2	11.1	13.8	42.8
Other money income	1.4	5.9	4.6	7.3	1.6	5.1	24.5
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
Total income ($)	**64,814**	**56,889**	**80,830**	**25,445**	**39,371**	**49,996**	**43,351**

1 *Includes families with head less than age 65.*
2 *Includes families with children less than age 18 living at home.*
3 *Includes families with children aged 18 and over and/or other relatives.*
4 *Includes families with head aged 65 and over.*
Source: *Statistics Canada, Income Statistics Division.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 6.10

Membership in employer-sponsored pension plans, 1980-1997[1]

	Women		Men		
	000s	% of employed paid female workers	000s	% of employed paid male workers	Women as a % of all plan members
1980	1,378	37.6	3,098	54.2	30.8
1982	1,477	36.2	3,181	53.7	31.7
1984	1,525	37.3	3,039	54.7	33.4
1986	1,621	37.0	3,047	52.9	34.7
1988	1,763	37.2	3,082	51.0	36.4
1989	1,981	37.4	3,128	47.0	38.8
1991	2,189	40.8	3,129	49.2	41.2
1992	2,220	41.6	3,025	48.1	42.3
1993	2,249	41.9	2,966	46.8	43.1
1994	2,240	41.1	2,930	45.3	43.3
1995	2,255	40.6	2,895	44.0	43.8
1996	2,250	40.3	2,866	43.4	44.0
1997	2,247	39.9	2,842	42.3	44.2

1 *At January 1st of each year.*
Sources: *Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 74-401-XPB, and Income Statistics Division.*

 Table 6.11

Contributors to Registered Retirement Savings Plans, 1982-1997

	Women		Men		
	000s	% of all female taxfilers	000s	% of all male taxfilers	Women as a % of all contributors
1982	706.7	9.7	1,393.6	17.5	33.6
1983	823.4	11.3	1,505.8	18.8	35.4
1984	960.6	12.9	1,684.4	20.8	36.3
1985	1,085.5	14.2	1,807.7	21.9	37.5
1986	1,241.9	15.6	1,974.4	23.1	38.6
1987	1,364.2	16.5	2,119.5	24.1	39.2
1988	1,510.5	17.6	2,291.7	25.4	39.7
1989	1,690.9	19.1	2,470.6	26.7	40.6
1990	1,704.8	18.4	2,435.1	25.6	41.2
1991	1,928.8	20.3	2,688.8	28.1	41.8
1992	2,052.2	21.1	2,784.2	28.6	42.4
1993	2,190.2	22.2	2,942.0	29.6	42.7
1994	2,292.2	22.7	3,075.4	30.5	42.7
1995	2,499.4	24.3	3,228.3	31.6	43.6
1996	2,655.7	25.3	3,344.3	32.4	44.3
1997	2,762.4	25.9	3,423.3	32.8	44.7

Source: *Revenue Canada, Taxation Statistics.*

 Table 6.12

Average annual earnings,[1] 1967-1997

	Full-time, full-year workers			Other workers			All earners		
	Women	Men	Earnings ratio[2]	Women	Men	Earnings ratio[2]	Women	Men	Earnings ratio[2]
	$		%	$		%	$		%
1967	18,725	32,057	58.4	6,726	13,303	50.6	12,263	26,600	46.1
1969	20,514	34,968	58.7	7,990	17,381	46.0	12,984	28,412	45.7
1971	22,614	37,906	59.7	7,547	14,968	50.4	14,294	30,498	46.9
1972	23,477	39,245	59.8	7,750	14,996	51.7	14,580	31,619	46.1
1973	23,697	39,982	59.3	7,921	15,171	52.2	14,895	32,196	46.3
1974	24,762	41,572	59.6	8,657	16,223	53.4	15,618	32,939	47.4
1975	25,664	42,635	60.2	8,571	16,934	50.6	16,213	33,721	48.1
1976	26,995	45,646	59.1	9,422	17,965	52.4	16,776	35,929	46.7
1977	26,299	42,382	62.1	9,579	15,763	60.8	17,305	34,089	50.8
1978	27,165	43,122	63.0	9,137	15,574	58.7	17,245	33,945	50.8
1979	26,555	41,839	63.5	9,500	16,393	57.9	17,426	33,795	51.6
1980	27,405	42,586	64.4	9,358	15,240	61.4	17,485	33,837	51.7
1981	26,638	41,793	63.7	9,747	15,648	62.3	17,713	33,025	53.6
1982	26,450	41,328	64.0	9,092	14,426	63.0	17,326	31,469	55.1
1983	27,366	42,226	64.8	8,558	13,739	62.3	17,485	31,663	55.2
1984	26,992	41,153	65.6	9,563	13,649	70.1	17,881	31,075	57.5
1985	26,848	41,258	65.1	9,240	13,190	70.1	17,922	31,817	56.3
1986	27,286	41,466	65.8	10,088	13,624	74.0	18,543	32,259	57.5
1987	27,761	41,970	66.1	10,303	13,512	76.2	18,822	32,555	57.8
1988	27,869	42,589	65.4	10,170	13,716	74.2	19,189	33,372	57.5
1989	27,928	42,328	66.0	10,643	14,441	73.7	19,760	33,444	59.1
1990	28,768	42,487	67.7	10,287	14,545	70.7	19,773	33,042	59.8
1991	29,360	42,165	69.6	9,721	13,842	70.2	19,773	32,130	61.5
1992	30,609	42,577	71.9	10,008	13,185	75.9	20,459	32,025	63.9
1993	30,132	41,722	72.2	9,770	13,099	74.6	20,185	31,370	64.3
1994	29,967	42,929	69.8	10,253	13,125	78.1	20,411	32,776	62.3
1995	30,641	41,896	73.1	10,306	13,391	77.0	20,859	32,037	65.1
1996	31,213	42,524	73.4	10,556	13,495	78.2	21,240	32,769	64.8
1997	30,915	42,626	72.5	10,870	13,821	78.6	21,167	33,185	63.8

[1] *Expressed in constant 1997 dollars.*

[2] *Represents women's earnings as a percentage of those of men.*

Source: *Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 13-217-XIB.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 6.13

Average annual earnings of persons employed full-time, full-year, by educational attainment, 1997

	Women	Men	Women's earnings as a % of men's
	$		
Educational attainment			
Less than Grade 9	21,403	30,731	69.6
Some secondary school	22,846	35,367	64.6
Secondary school graduate	27,525	37,705	73.0
Some postsecondary	28,360	37,812	75.0
Postsecondary certificate/diploma	29,539	41,868	70.6
University degree	42,661	57,930	73.6
Total	**30,915**	**42,626**	**72.5**

Source: *Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 13-217-XIB.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 6.14

Average annual earnings, by occupation, 1997

	Full-time, full-year workers			All workers		
	Women	Men	Earnings ratio[1]	Women	Men	Earnings ratio[1]
	$		%	$		%
Managerial/administrative	37,092	56,640	65.5	33,165	53,113	62.4
Professionals						
Natural sciences	41,221	49,962	82.5	34,413	44,464	77.4
Social sciences/religion	37,280	55,767	66.8	30,412	48,043	63.3
Teaching	40,888	50,305	81.3	30,812	42,781	72.0
Medicine/health	35,407	62,354	56.8	28,082	55,652	50.4
Artistic/recreational	29,324	41,251	71.1	21,116	28,918	73.0
Clerical	28,151	34,863	80.7	21,426	27,899	76.8
Sales	28,843	39,475	73.1	18,478	31,631	58.4
Service	21,516	33,225	64.8	14,160	23,869	59.3
Agriculture	18,366	25,126	73.1	12,918	20,699	62.4
Processing	26,886	40,655	66.1	20,607	34,531	59.7
Product assembly/fabrication/ repair	24,384	38,111	64.0	19,698	33,734	58.4
Transport equipment operation	30,253	38,396	78.8	22,285	33,166	67.2
Material handling	22,810	35,821	63.7	17,072	23,821	71.7
Total	**30,915**	**42,626**	**72.5**	**21,167**	**33,185**	**63.8**

[1] *Represents women's earnings as a percentage of those of men.*

Source: *Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 13-217-XIB.*

Table 6.15

Average annual earnings of full-time, full-year workers, by age and marital status, 1997

	Single	Married	Other[1]	Total
People aged				
15-24				
Women	22,687	19,319	...	21,389
Men	25,198	30,515	...	26,467
Earnings ratio[2] (%)	90.0	63.3	...	80.8
25-34				
Women	29,947	28,152	30,858	28,833
Men	33,824	40,003	...	37,810
Earnings ratio[2] (%)	88.5	70.4	...	76.3
35-44				
Women	34,644	32,173	35,408	32,916
Men	39,030	46,283	40,076	44,819
Earnings ratio[2] (%)	88.8	69.5	88.4	73.4
45-54				
Women	40,719	32,140	35,795	33,452
Men	38,835	48,950	44,822	47,957
Earnings ratio[2] (%)	104.9	65.7	79.9	69.8
55 and over				
Women	...	28,687	28,779	28,848
Men	...	44,060	44,038	43,421
Earnings ratio[2] (%)	...	65.1	65.4	66.4
Total aged 15 and over				
Women	30,720	30,424	33,950	30,915
Men	33,451	45,102	42,300	42,626
Earnings ratio[2] (%)	91.8	67.5	80.3	72.5

[1] *Includes separated/divorced and widowed.*

[2] *Represents women's earnings as a percentage of those of men.*

Source: *Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 13-217-XIB.*

CHAPTER 7

Housing and Household Facilities

by Marcia Almey

Homeownership

Women's homeownership characteristics are related, in large part, to their family status. Women living in two-spouse families, for example, are far more likely than other women to own their own homes. In 1997, 78% of women in husband-wife families[1] lived in an owner-occupied home, whereas only 49% of unattached female seniors, 34% of unattached women aged 15-64, and 29% of female lone parents owned their homes. (Table 7.1)

Female lone parents are also considerably less likely than male lone parents to own their homes. In 1997, 29% of female lone parents were homeowners, compared with 52% of families headed by male lone parents. Unattached women aged 65 and over were also less likely than their male counterparts to own their homes (49% versus 54%), while among unattached individuals under age 65, women were about as likely as men to be homeowners.

Mortgage-free homeownership

While relatively few unattached women own their homes, a large proportion of those who are homeowners have paid off their mortgages. This is especially true of unattached senior women. In 1997, 89% of unattached female homeowners aged 65 and over owned their homes outright, about the same figure as for their male counterparts (88%). (Chart 7.1)

At the same time, almost half of unattached female homeowners under age 65 were also mortgage-free. In fact, in 1997, non-elderly unattached female homeowners were more likely than their male counterparts to own their homes outright: 48% versus 40%.

In contrast, very few lone-parent homeowners have paid off their mortgages. Among families which owned their homes in 1997, only 33% of female lone-parent families and just 32% of their male counterparts were mortgage-free, compared with 46% of two-spouse families.

Need for repairs

Women heading lone-parent families are also more likely than other women to live in homes needing repairs. In 1997, 33% of the homes of lone-parent mothers required either major or minor repairs, about the same figure as for lone-parent families headed by men (34%), but substantially higher than that for two-spouse families (23%) or for unattached women of all ages. (Table 7.2)

Unattached women are also less likely than their male counterparts to live in a house requiring repairs. In 1997, 16% of unattached senior women, and 25% of those aged 15-64, lived in homes that needed repairs. In both cases, these figures were several percentage points lower than those for unattached men in the same age range.

Percentage of homeowners without mortgages, by household type, 1997



Source: *Statistics Canada, Income Statistics Division.*

Among unattached senior women, homeowners are more likely than renters to live in homes requiring repairs. In 1997, the share of unattached female homeowners aged 65 and over whose dwellings required repairs was 10 percentage points greater than that for renters: 21% versus 11%. In contrast, for both female lone parents and non-elderly unattached women, there was very little difference between the shares of owners and renters living in dwellings requiring repairs.

Housing affordability

Many women experience housing affordability problems.[2] However, the likelihood that they will have these difficulties depends, to a large extent, on their family status and on whether they own or rent. Among families which rented in 1996, for example, 60% of those headed by female lone parents were considered to have housing affordability problems, compared with 40% of those headed by male lone parents and just 29% of those with two parents. (Chart 7.2)

Similarly, among unattached women who rented in 1996, 62% of seniors and 52% of those aged 15-64 had housing affordability problems. In addition, in both age groups, female renters were more likely than their male counterparts to have difficulty affording their housing.

Women who own their homes are considerably less likely than those who rent to have housing affordability problems. Still, among women who owned their homes in 1996, 36% of unattached women under age 65, 30% of female lone parents, and 20% of unattached senior women had housing affordability problems. As with renters, female homeowners in these groups were more likely than their male counterparts to have housing affordability problems.

The fact that many female lone parents and unattached women are considered to have housing affordability problems is not surprising, since they are also the groups of women who are most likely to have relatively low incomes.[3]

 Chart 7.2

Percentage paying 30% or more of total gross household income on shelter costs, by household type, 1996



Source: *Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.*

Household amenities

Almost all women in Canada have access to basic household facilities such as baths and flush toilets as well as telephones, radios, and colour televisions. However, depending on their family status, there are considerable differences in the shares of women who own other amenities. Women in two-spouse families, for instance, are far more likely than female lone parents to own most household conveniences. In 1997, the shares of women in two-spouse families who had an automatic washing machine, clothes dryer, dishwasher, or freezer were 15 to 30 percentage points higher than the figures for lone-parent mothers. Women with spouses were also more likely to have a microwave oven, video cassette recorder, gas barbecue, air conditioner, fire extinguisher, or compact disc player. (Table 7.3)

Among unattached women in 1997, those under age 65 were more likely than seniors to own gas barbecues, microwave ovens, video cassette recorders, compact disc players, and camcorders, while those aged 65 and over were more likely to have air conditioners, freezers, and portable fire extinguishers. However, unattached women in both age groups were generally less likely than either women living with a partner or female lone parents to have most of these household amenities.

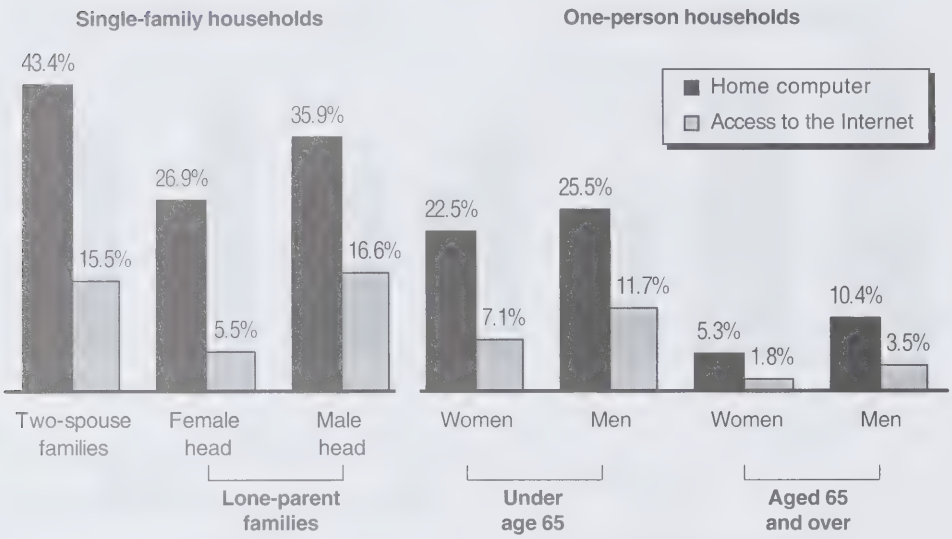
Vehicle ownership

Women in two-spouse families are more likely than women heading lone-parent families to own an automobile or other vehicle. In fact, 93% of all two-partner families, as opposed to 64% of female lone parents, owned at least one vehicle in 1997. Female lone parents were also less likely than male lone parents (64% versus 78%) to own at least one vehicle.

Unattached women are also less likely than women in families to own a car or other vehicle. In 1997, just 45% of unattached women aged 65 and over and 65% of those under age 65 owned at least one vehicle. As well, unattached women in both age ranges were considerably less likely than their male counterparts to own a vehicle.

 Chart 7.3

Percentage with home computers and access to the Internet at home, by household type, 1997



Source: *Statistics Canada, Income Statistics Division.*

Home computers and access to the Internet

Women living in two-spouse families are also far more likely than other women to have home computers and Internet services. In 1997, 43% of women living with a partner had computers at home, compared with just over a quarter (27%) of families headed by female lone parents. Similarly, 16% of women in two-spouse families, as opposed to just 6% of female lone parents, had Internet access at home. (Chart 7.3)

Indeed, female lone parents and unattached women of all ages are less likely than comparable men to have either home computers or Internet service at home. In 1997, 27% of female lone-parent families, versus 36% of their male counterparts, had home computers. At the same time, only 6% of female lone parents had Internet services, compared with 17% of their male equivalents.

Unattached women in all age ranges are less likely than their male counterparts to have home computers. For example, in 1997, among unattached women, 23% of those aged 15-64 and just 5% of seniors, owned home computers; this compares to 26% of non-elderly unattached men and 10% of their senior counterparts. Not surprisingly, the figures for Internet services at home were also lower for unattached women than for comparable men.

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1 *Includes those living in a common-law relationship.*

2 *Those with housing affordability problems include families and unattached individuals that spend 30% or more of their total household income on shelter costs. It should be noted, however, that those paying 30% or more of their income on shelter may not necessarily have a housing affordability problem; some, for example, may be paying down their mortgage quickly.*

3 *For more information on the incomes of these families, see Chapter 6.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 7.1

Housing tenure, by household type, 1997

	Single-family households			One-person households			
		Lone-parent families		Under age 65		Aged 65 and over	
	Two-spouse families	Female head	Male head	Women	Men	Women	Men
				%			
Tenure							
Owned with mortgage	42.4	19.6	35.7	17.7	21.1	5.2	6.7
Owned without mortgage	35.8	9.5	16.3	16.3	13.9	43.7	47.7
Total owned	78.3	29.2	52.0	33.9	35.0	48.8	54.4
Rented	21.7	70.8	48.0	66.1	65.0	51.2	47.7
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
Total households (000s)	**7,477**	**575**	**90**	**793**	**1,070**	**790**	**261**

Source: *Statistics Canada, Income Statistics Division.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 7.2

Percentage of homes needing repairs,[1] by household type and tenure, 1997

	Single-family households			One-person households			
		Lone-parent families		Under age 65		Aged 65 and over	
	Two-spouse families	Female head	Male head	Women	Men	Women	Men
				%			
Owners							
Major repairs needed	7.3	9.6	11.0	9.6	11.4	6.3	9.2
Minor repairs only needed	14.0	23.0	16.1	15.1	18.3	14.7	13.2
Total needing repairs	21.3	32.1	27.1	24.8	29.7	21.0	22.5
Repairs not needed[2]	78.7	67.4	72.9	75.3	70.3	79.0	77.7
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Renters							
Major repairs needed	10.3	11.6	11.1	7.2	8.7	2.0	4.6
Minor repairs only needed	19.3	21.3	30.6	18.5	20.2	9.4	12.3
Total needing repairs	29.5	32.9	41.7	25.8	29.0	11.4	16.8
Repairs not needed[2]	70.4	67.1	58.3	74.3	71.1	88.6	83.1
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Total owners and renters needing repairs	**23.1**	**32.9**	**34.4**	**25.4**	**29.3**	**16.1**	**19.5**
Total households (000s)	**7,477**	**575**	**90**	**793**	**1,070**	**790**	**261**

[1] *Does not include remodelling, additions, conversions, or energy-saving improvements.*
[2] *Excluding regular maintenance.*
Source: *Statistics Canada, Income Statistics Division.*

 Table 7.3

Percentage of households with selected facilities, by household type, 1997

	Single-family households			One-person households			
		Lone-parent families		Under age 65		Aged 65 and over	
	Two-spouse families	Female head	Male head	Women	Men	Women	Men
				%			
Household facilities and equipment							
Bath facilities	99.9	100.0	100.0	99.7	99.0	99.7	99.5
Flush toilet	99.9	100.0	100.0	99.7	99.1	99.8	99.6
Automatic washing machine	89.2	74.1	76.4	56.2	50.1	56.4	55.5
Clothes dryer	87.8	72.3	76.2	54.0	49.0	53.9	51.5
Dishwasher	59.2	32.6	42.1	29.2	25.6	26.0	24.1
Refrigerator	99.9	99.5	98.9	99.5	99.4	99.6	99.6
Freezer	67.8	42.1	45.7	27.5	23.6	43.0	38.2
Microwave oven	91.6	85.4	82.3	78.8	72.3	71.4	64.0
Gas barbecue	67.3	40.9	49.5	25.2	30.1	14.0	22.2
Air conditioner	32.9	17.7	17.9	23.2	19.4	27.4	24.5
Smoke detector	96.9	94.9	96.6	96.3	92.4	95.2	93.1
Fire extinguisher	62.1	35.3	47.0	32.8	35.5	35.2	44.4
Telephone	99.5	96.6	95.1	97.7	94.3	99.2	98.5
Radio	99.0	98.1	98.9	98.4	97.9	97.2	97.7
Colour television	99.4	98.4	100.0	97.6	96.1	98.4	97.7
Video cassette recorder	91.7	87.1	84.7	75.4	74.8	46.4	50.4
Camcorder	23.3	10.1	14.6	5.5	9.0	2.4	4.7
Compact disc player	64.0	57.9	61.1	48.0	54.2	17.8	23.8
Cable television	75.4	74.3	72.0	70.9	63.6	76.3	66.6
Owned vehicles							
One	38.8	54.8	61.1	60.1	58.1	40.6	58.3
Two or more	54.4	9.6	16.3	5.0	12.2	4.4	10.5
Total with vehicle	93.2	64.3	77.8	65.2	70.3	45.1	68.6
Total households (000s)	**7,477**	**575**	**90**	**793**	**1,070**	**790**	**261**

Source: *Statistics Canada, Income Statistics Division.*

CHAPTER 8

Women and the Criminal Justice System

by Sandra Besserer and Valerie Pottie Bunge

Women as victims of crime

Traditionally, women's involvement in the criminal justice system has been more as victims of crime rather than as perpetrators. In 1998, women were charged with committing 19% of all crime[1] in Canada, whereas they represented 49% of all victims of violent crime reported to a sample of police forces that year.[2] (Table 8.1)

As with men, women are most likely to be victims of common assault. In 1998, 51% of all women who were victims of a violent offence[3] were victims of common assault. At the same time, substantial shares of female victims were the victims of sexual assault (11%), robbery (10%), assault with a weapon causing bodily harm (9%), and criminal harassment (6%).

Not surprisingly, women make up the large majority of victims of sexual assault in Canada. In fact, in 1998, 85% of all victims of this type of offence were female, as were 78% of those of criminal harassment and 62% of those of kidnappings and abductions. In contrast, women were victims in 21% of aggravated assault cases and 18% of "other" assaults.

Female victims by age

Adult women account for the large majority of all females who are the victims of violent crime. In 1998, 80% of all female victims of violent crime were aged 18 and over, while 14% were aged 12-17 and 6% were under age 12. (Table 8.2)

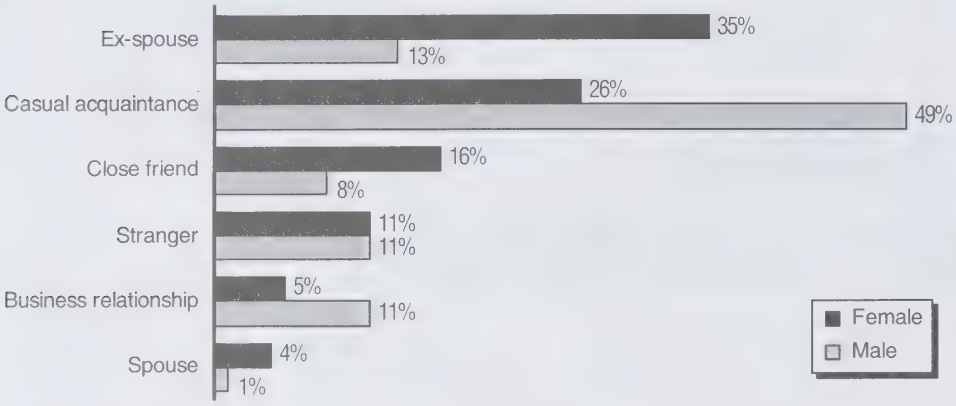
Children, however, make up a disproportionate share of victims of sexual offences. In fact, in 1998, over half of female victims of these crimes were less than 18 years of age: 32% were aged 12-17 and 21% were under age 12. There was somewhat of a similar pattern with males, among whom 49% of all sexual assault victims were under age 12.

Most women victimized by someone they know

While the number of victims of violent crime does not differ substantially for women and men, the situations under which they are victimized are different. Women are much more likely to be victimized by someone they know than by a stranger. In 1998, 78% of all female victims were victimized by someone they knew, while 22% were victimized by a stranger. Men, on the other hand, were almost as likely to be victimized by a stranger (46%) as by someone they knew (54%). (Table 8.3)

Women have the most to fear from members of their own family. In 1998, 32% of female victims were victimized by spouses,[4] while 11% were victimized by other family members such as aunts, uncles, sisters, or brothers. A further 35% of female victims were victimized by a close friend or business acquaintance. Alternatively, men were most likely to be victimized by acquaintances (42%), while smaller percentages were victimized by spouses (5%) or other family members (7%).

Victims of criminal harassment, by relationship to accused, 1998[1]



[1] *The data are from a non-random sample of 169 police agencies, representing 46% of the national volume of crime.*

Source: *Statistics Canada, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Revised Uniform Crime Reporting Survey.*

There is a similar pattern for the particular offence of criminal harassment. In 1998, women were most frequently harassed by ex-spouses (35%), followed by casual acquaintances (26%), whereas the reverse was true for men. That year, men were most frequently harassed by casual acquaintances (49%), followed by ex-spouses (13%). (Chart 8.1)

The prevalence of spousal violence

Results of the 1999 General Social Survey suggest that violence in marriages and common-law unions is a reality that many women face. In fact, just under 700,000 women, an estimated 8% of all women who were married or living in a common-law relationship, or who had contact with a former partner, experienced some type of violence by their intimate partners in the five-year period prior to the survey. The five-year rate of spousal violence against women, however, was only slightly higher than that for men: 8% versus 7%.[5]

While relatively equal proportions of women and men report being victims of spousal violence, women tend to be more severely abused than men. For example, female victims of spousal violence were two and a half times more likely than male victims to report being beaten. Indeed, 25% of all women who had been victims of spousal violence in the five years prior to the 1999 survey had been beaten, compared with 10% of male victims. Similarly, 20% of female victims, versus 4% of their male counterparts, reported having been choked, while 13% of female victims, versus 7% of male victims, were threatened with a gun or knife or had one used against them. On the other hand, female victims of spousal violence were somewhat less likely than male victims to report less serious types of violence. In the five years prior to the survey, 40% of female victims, versus 57% of male victims, were slapped, while there were similar differences for those having something thrown at them (44% versus 56%), or who were kicked, bitten, or hit (33% versus 51%). (Table 8.4)

Women who had been in contact with a previous partner in the five years preceding the survey interview were more likely than those in a current relationship to report all types of violence. In fact, 28% of all women who had been in contact with a former spouse in this time period reported some kind of abuse, compared with 4% of those who were currently living with a spouse. There was a similar pattern among men;

however, the figure for men who had been in contact with a former spouse in the past five years (22%) was less than that for comparable women, whereas there was no difference in five-year spousal violence rates reported by women and men currently living with their spouse.

The difference in rates of violence reported by those who were currently married and those who were previously married may be the result of several different factors, including the difficulty for many women and men living with a violent partner to disclose their experiences to an interviewer, the increased risk of violence during separation, or the number of cases in which violence was the cause of separation or divorce. All of these factors could partially explain why women and men are more likely to report violence in previous relationships than in current relationships.

Women are also more likely than men to be victims of repeated incidents of spousal violence. In fact, 65% of all women who reported being assaulted by a partner were victimized on more than one occasion, with over one in four (26%) victimized more than 10 times. By comparison, 54% of men who experienced marital violence were the targets of more than one incident and 13% said it happened more than 10 times. (Table 8.5)

Female victims of spousal violence were also more likely than their male counterparts to suffer some kind of physical injury as a result of spousal violence. Of women who were victims of spousal violence in the five years prior to the 1999 survey, 40% reported experiencing a physical injury, compared with 13% of male victims. Women were also five times more likely than men to have required medical attention as a result of the violent incident: 15% versus 3%. (Chart 8.2)

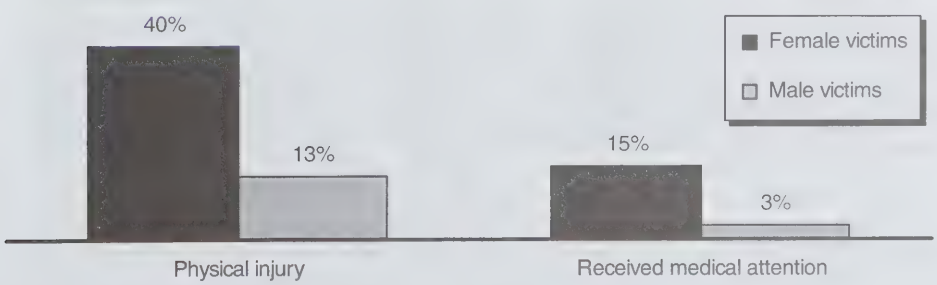
As well, in many cases of spousal violence, the violence or the threat of violence was so severe that female victims feared for their lives. Of women living in violent relationships during the past five years, 38% feared their lives were in danger; in contrast, this was the case among 8% of male victims.

Women also appear to suffer more negative emotional consequences as a result of the violence than do men. In particular, female victims were more likely to report being afraid for their children (14% compared to 2%), to have sleeping problems (14% compared to 4%), to suffer from depression or anxiety attacks (21% versus 10%), and to report having lowered self-esteem (23% versus 6%).

Female victims of spousal violence were more likely than their male counterparts to report using some form of social services for support in dealing with the violence. Of those who were victims of some form of spousal violence in the five years prior to the

Chart 8.2

Severity of spousal violence over past 5-year period, by sex of victim, 1999



Source: *Statistics Canada, General Social Survey.*

survey, 48% of women, compared with 17% of men, used a social service for support. This may reflect the more severe nature of the violent incidents experienced by women, and the fact that social services for female victims are more readily available compared to those for men.

The most frequently used social service by women was a counselor or psychologist. Of women who were victims of some form of spousal violence in the five years prior to the survey, 38% saw a counsellor or psychologist, while 11% went to a transition home, 17% used a crisis centre or crisis line, and another 15% used a community centre or family centre. Of women who did not use a social service for help, 44% reported they did not want or need help, 17% reported the incident was too minor to require social services, while 6% did not know of any social services available.

Less than half of the incidents of spousal violence against women are reported to police. According to the 1999 survey, 37% of spousal violence involving female victims was reported to the police in the five years preceding the survey. This, however, was more than double the figure for men, as only 15% of spousal violence involving male victims was reported to police in the same period.

The proportion of incidents of spousal violence against women reported to police, however, is increasing, albeit slowly. As of 1999, 37% of spousal violence involving female victims in the five years prior to the survey had been reported to police, up from 29% as reported in the 1993 Violence Against Women Survey.[6] This suggests an increased willingness on the part of female victims to become involved in the criminal justice system, perhaps due to efforts by police and Crown prosecutors to improve the way they respond to these types of cases. In fact, mandatory charging policies were implemented across Canada in the early 1980s to increase charging by the police and prosecution by the Crown in cases of wife assault and most provinces currently have policies and procedures in place to respond to spousal abuse complaints.

Police-reported and victim-reported crime

There are two major types of surveys at Statistics Canada that provide data on victims of crime. These are police-reported surveys and victimization surveys. The Incident-based Uniform Crime Reporting (UCR2) Survey collects detailed information on criminal incidents that come to the attention of the police. Victimization surveys, on the other hand, interview random samples of the population about their experiences with crime. Victimization surveys provide information that is complementary to police statistics as they include incidents that were reported to the police and those that were not reported to the police. Since many types of crime are underreported to the police, for example, sexual assault and spousal violence, it is important to understand both types of data.

Statistics Canada has conducted four victimization surveys to date: the 1988, 1993, and 1999 General Social Surveys, and the specialized 1993 Violence Against Women Survey. The most recent of these surveys, the 1999 General Social Survey, measured the nature and extent of criminal victimization in Canada, including attitudes toward the various components of the judicial system, use of services, perceptions of personal safety, and spousal violence. This survey builds on the success of the Violence Against Women Survey and is the first attempt by Statistics Canada to measure spousal violence in a comprehensive way on a traditional victimization survey. Both women and men were asked a module of 10 questions concerning violence by their spouses and common-law partners. The nature of the violence under study ranged in seriousness from threats to sexual assault and concerned acts that happened in the 12-month and five-year period preceding the survey interview.

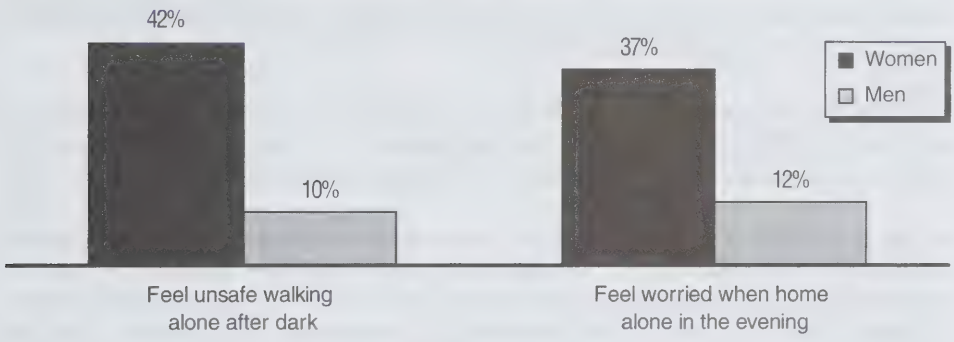
Women more fearful than men

Women tend to be more concerned with being a victim of crime than are men. In 1993, 37% of adult women said they felt worried when they were home alone in the evening and 42% reported feeling unsafe walking alone after dark. In contrast, only 12% of men felt worried when home alone in the evening, while 10% felt unsafe walking alone after dark. (Chart 8.3)

Not surprisingly, women who have experienced some form of victimization are more likely than those who have never been victimized to be concerned about their safety when alone in various situations, although substantial proportions of women report feeling fearful whether they have ever been victimized or not. Data from the Violence Against Women Survey showed, for example, that 86% of women who had experienced some form of violence or sexual harassment were afraid when alone in a parking garage, compared with 79% of those who did not report these experiences. Similarly, 79% of female victims were afraid to take public transportation alone after dark, versus 70% of non-victims, while 65% of victims were afraid to walk alone in their neighbourhood after dark, compared with 55% of those who had never been victimized. (Chart 8.4)

Chart 8.3

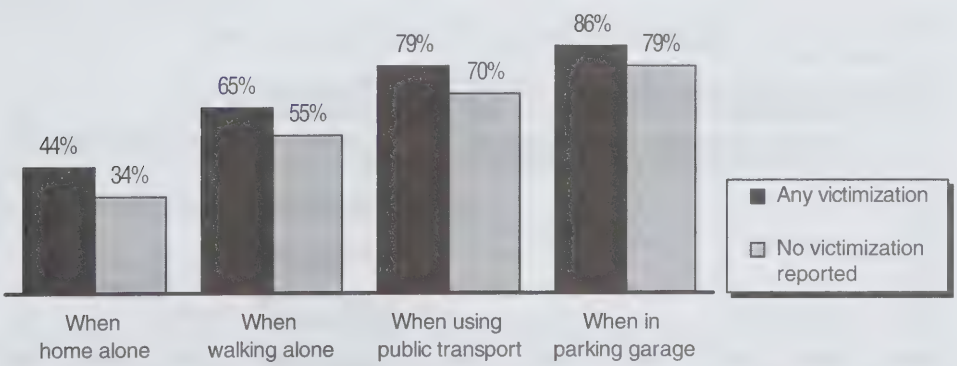
Population aged 15 and over, by feelings of safety, 1993



Source: *Statistics Canada, General Social Survey.*

Chart 8.4

Women who worry about their personal safety, by whether they were ever victimized, 1993[1]



[1] *Includes women who have been assaulted or harassed since the age of 16. Excludes women who are never in these situations.*

Source: *Statistics Canada, Violence Against Women Survey.*

WOMEN IN CANADA **Defining sexual harrassment**

The Violence Against Women Survey defined sexual harassment as any of the following behaviours committed by a stranger: obscene phone calls; unwanted attention from a male stranger; followed in a frightening way; and indecent exposure. The following behaviours committed by men known to the victim were also included in the definition of sexual harassment: made inappropriate comments about her body or sexual life; leaned over unnecessarily, got too close, or cornered her; repeatedly asked for a date and would not take "no" for an answer; and hinted her job situation might be hurt if she didn't have a sexual relationship.

Women at greatest risk of spousal homicide, but rate is decreasing[7]

In 1998, there were a total of 555 victims of homicide in Canada, of whom 32% were female and 68% were male. As with other types of victimization, women are more likely to be murdered by someone they knew than by a stranger. In 1998, women were killed by someone they knew more than 80% of the time, while 7% were killed by a stranger. Men were also more likely to be murdered by someone they knew (58%) than by a stranger (14%). (Table 8.6)

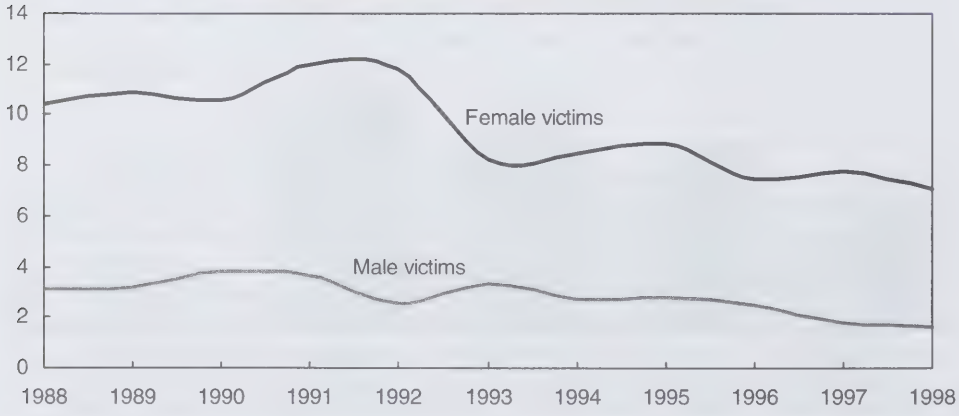
While it is likely that both women and men will know their killers, women are far more likely to be murdered by someone with whom they have a family relationship. In 1998, 58% of female homicide victims, versus 18% of male homicide victims, were killed by a family member. In contrast, only 24% of female victims, compared with 40% of male victims, were murdered by an acquaintance.

Furthermore, women are much more at risk of being murdered by their spouse than by any other family member. Indeed, 32% of women who were murdered in 1998 were murdered by a spouse, whereas, this was the case for only 3% of men murdered that year.

While the number of women murdered by their current or former spouses on a yearly basis continues to be high (57), the rate of spousal homicide is decreasing. Over the past decade, the rate of spousal homicide has fallen from 12 wives killed per million couples in 1991 to seven in 1998. Wives are still more likely to be killed by a spouse than are husbands. In 1998, there were two husbands killed per million couples, although this was also down from four in 1990. (Chart 8.5)

WOMEN IN CANADA Chart 8.5

Spousal homicides per 1,000,000 couples[1], 1988-1998



[1] *Based on July 1st population estimates for men and women legally married, in common-law relationships, separated or divorced.*

Source: *Statistics Canada, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Homicide Survey.*

Many abused women use shelters[8] for protection

Many battered women and their children find refuge from their abusive situations in shelters. The Violence Against Women Survey found that 8% of wife assault victims (217,000 women) had contacted a shelter at least once in their lifetime, and that 6% of wife assault victims (156,000 women) had stayed in a shelter at least once.

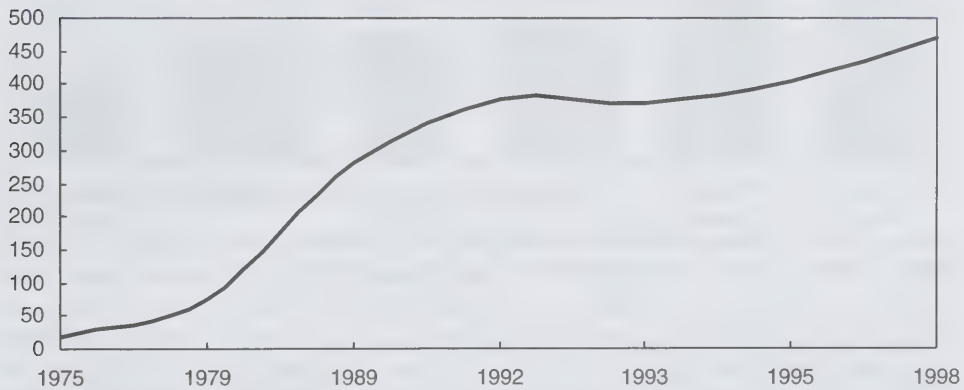
As the issue of violence against women and family violence has gained attention in the past several decades, the number of shelters for abused women in Canada has grown. In April 1998, there were 470 shelters for abused women across Canada, up from 18 in 1975. (Chart 8.6)

Most women in shelters are seeking refuge from a current partner. In 1998, 36% of women in a shelter were escaping their husband and 32% were escaping a common-law partner. At the same time, 12% were escaping a former spouse or partner, while 5% were escaping a current or former boyfriend. (Chart 8.7)

As well, most women in shelters are there because of some type of abuse. In 1998, the largest share, 78%, were escaping psychological abuse, while 67% were escaping physical assaults, 48% were there because of threats, and 26% had been victims of sexual assault.[9] (Chart 8.8)

WOMEN IN CANADA Chart 8.6

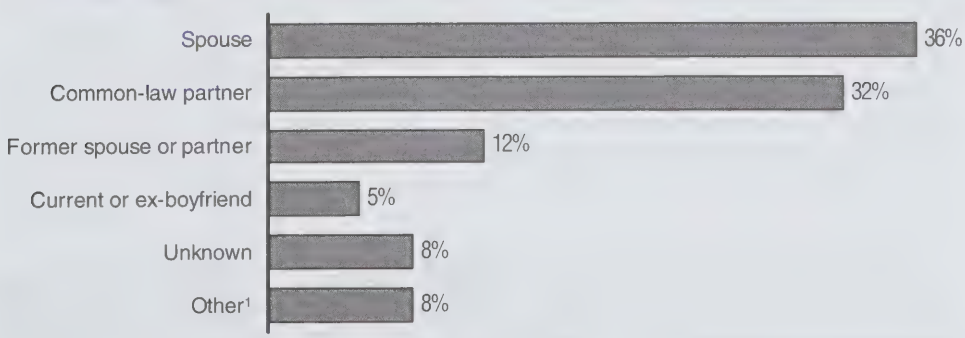
Number of shelters for abused women, 1975-1998



Source: *Statistics Canada, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Transition Home Survey.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Chart 8.7

Abused women in shelters, by relationship to abuser, April 20, 1998



[1] *Includes relative, friend, caregiver, authority figure and other.*

Source: *Statistics Canada, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Transition Home Survey.*

Women as offenders

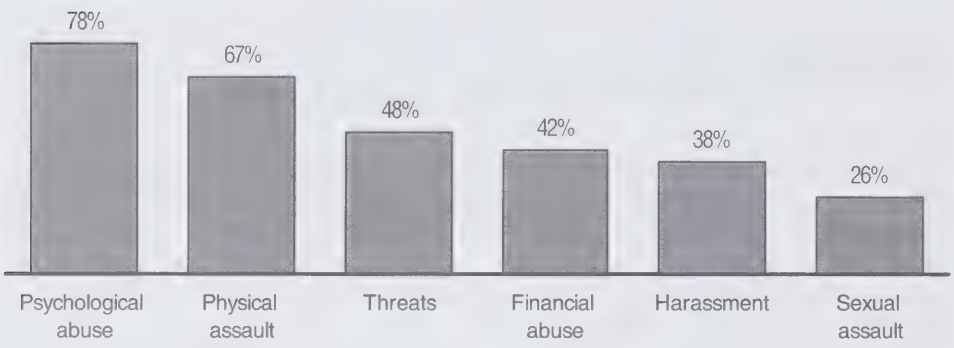
Women are much less likely than men to be involved in criminal activity. In 1998, adult women aged 18 and over made up only 18% of all adults charged with a criminal offence.[10] This figure is up, though, from 14% two decades earlier. (Chart 8.9)

As with adults, young women are much less criminally active than young men; however, their involvement in crime is growing. In 1998, young women aged 12-17 accounted for 23% of all youths charged, up considerably from 14% in 1978. Since 1989, young women have accounted for a greater proportion of youth crime than women have of adult crime.

Women account for a higher proportion of adults charged with property offences than they do for violent offences. In 1998, women made up 23% of those charged with property offences, whereas they represented only 14% of those charged with violent offences. (Table 8.7)

WOMEN IN CANADA Chart 8.8

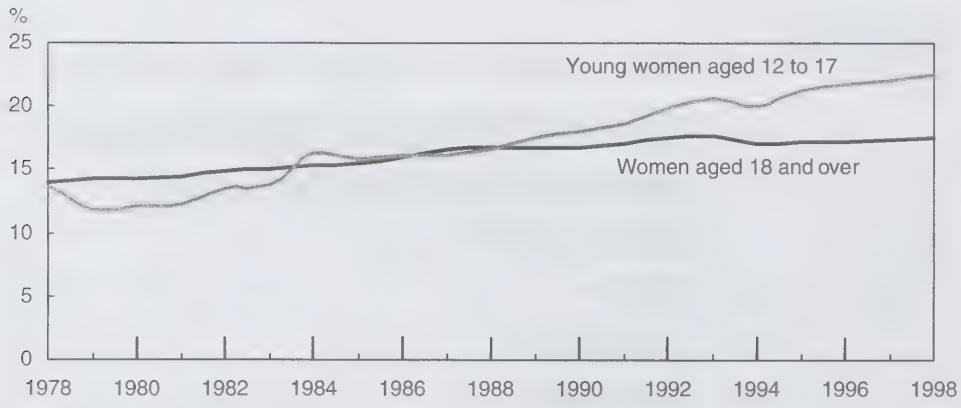
Abused women in shelters, by type of abuse, April 20, 1998



Source: *Statistics Canada, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Transition Home Survey.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Chart 8.9

Adult and young women charged with criminal offences[1] as a percentage of respective total populations charged, 1978-1998



[1] *Refers to federal statute offences.*

Source: *Statistics Canada, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Uniform Crime Reporting Survey.*

There is considerable variation in women's involvement within the major crime categories. For example, for violent offences, adult women accounted for a relatively high proportion of those adults charged with abduction in 1998 (45%), but a relatively low proportion of those charged with either robbery (9%) or sexual assault (2%). Similarly, for property offences, women had a higher representation among those charged with fraud (30%) and theft of $5,000 and under (30%) and a lower representation for those charged with motor vehicle theft (7%) and breaking and entering (6%). Adult women also accounted for more than half of adults charged with prostitution (54%), but only 14% of those were charged with drug offences.

Unlike adult women, young women account for a higher proportion of youths charged with violent offences than they do for property offences. In 1998, 26% of youths charged with violent offences were young women, whereas young females made up 22% of youths charged with offences against property.

Within the violent offence category, however, young women tend to be underrepresented in all offences except assault. For property offences, as with adult women, female youths had higher representation among youths charged with fraud and theft of $5,000 and under and a lower representation among those charged with breaking and entering and motor vehicle theft. Young women also made up a very large percentage of youths charged with prostitution, but the actual number of these charges was very low.

The most common crime among women is theft. In 1998, 28% of charges against adult women and 34% of charges against young women involved this offence. In most instances, the theft was in the form of shoplifting and the stolen property was worth $5,000 or less. The next most common offence is assault, a violent offence. In 1998, one in five charges laid against both adult and young women were for assault. The majority of the charges involved common assault (level 1), which is the least serious form of assault.

Criminal activity of women peaks at age 15

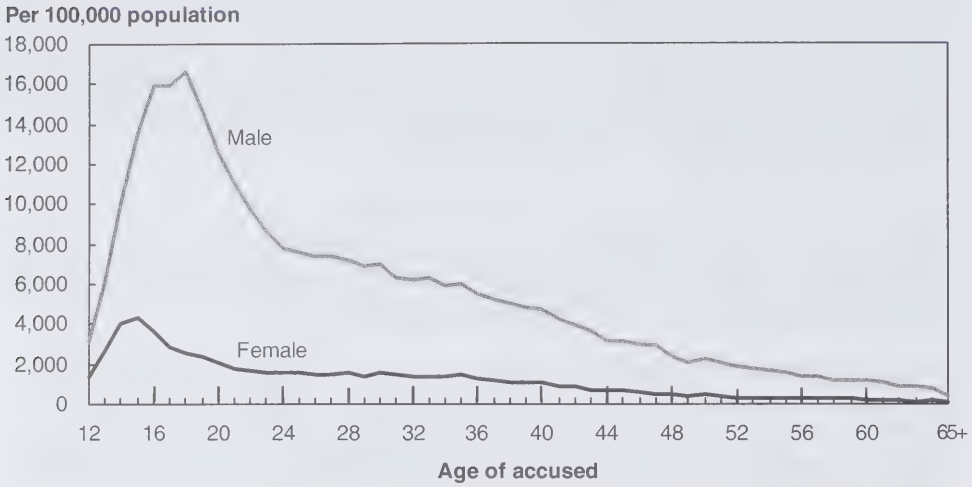
While the large majority of females charged with criminal offences are adults, the level of criminal activity for women actually peaks during their mid-teens. In 1998, there were 4,300 young women aged 15 accused of a crime for every 100,000 15-year-old females, while for 14-year-olds, the figure was 4,100 and for 16-year-olds it was 3,700. In contrast, the figure among women in their twenties was only 1,600. At all ages, however, the rate of accused women was well below that for men. (Chart 8.10)

Women and homicide

Very few women are accused of homicide. In 1998, there were a total of 64 women suspected of this crime, representing 12% of the total accused. Homicide activity is highest among adult women under the age of 30. In 1998, there were 32 women aged 18-29 accused of homicide representing a rate of 1.3 for every 100,000 women in this age group. The next highest rates were 0.7 for women in their thirties and 0.3 for women in their forties. Homicide rates for men are also highest for young adults under the age of 30, but these rates are much higher than those for women. In 1998, there were 204 males aged 18-29 accused of homicide, representing a rate of 8.0 per 100,000 population, followed by rates of 4.3 for young males aged 12-17 and 3.8 for men in their thirties.[11]

Women charged with homicide are most often accused of killing a family member. In 1998, 29% of women accused of homicide were identified as being the mother/ stepmother of the victim, while 27% were identified as the spouse and 12% were identified as another family member.[12]

Age of females and males accused of a crime,[1] 1998



[1] *Includes all federal statute offences. The data are from a non-random sample of 169 police agencies, representing 46% of the national volume of crime.*

Source: *Statistics Canada, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Revised Uniform Crime Reporting Survey.*

Female offenders in the courts

Not surprisingly, given the fact that women make up a minority of those charged with criminal activity, they also represent a relatively small proportion of those dealt with by the courts. In fact, in 1997-98, only 15% of the cases completed in adult criminal courts involved women. As well, women who do appear in court are somewhat less likely than their male counterparts to be found guilty. In 1997-98, just over half (54%) of the cases against women resulted in a conviction, compared with a figure of 63% for men.[13]

Women found guilty in court are relatively more likely to be sentenced to probation. In 1997-98, 41% of women convicted of an offence were given probation as their most serious sentence; this compared with 28% of males found guilty. In contrast, women were less likely than their male counterparts to be sentenced to prison: 23% versus 35%. (Chart 8.11)

Those women sentenced to jail time receive fairly short sentences. Indeed, the median term for women sent to prison was 1 month, compared to 1.5 months for men. As well, for most offences, the median prison terms for women were the same or shorter than those for men. One exception was drug trafficking, where the median prison term was 6 months for women, versus 4 months for men. [13]

Young female offenders in youth court

Female youths also account for a minority of all cases heard in youth courts across Canada. In 1997-98, there were over 23,000 cases in youth court involving females, representing 21% of the youth court caseload. As with older women, female youths dealt with by the courts are somewhat less likely than their male counterparts to be found guilty. In 1997-98, there was a finding of guilt in 62% of cases involving young women, compared with 69% of those involving young men.[14]

Also, as with adult female offenders, young women convicted of a crime are more likely than young men to be sentenced to probation, while they are less likely to be incarcerated. In 1997-98, 54% of female youths found guilty in youth court were given probation as their most serious sentence, compared with 47% of convicted male youths. At the same time, 27% of female youths found guilty, versus 36% of their male counterparts, were sentenced to custody. (Chart 8.12)

Female youths who are sentenced to custody tend to receive shorter terms than male youths. In 1997-98, the median length of custody for female young offenders was 30 days – 12 days shorter than for male young offenders.[14]

Chart 8.11

Distribution of sentences of adult offenders, 1997-98[1]



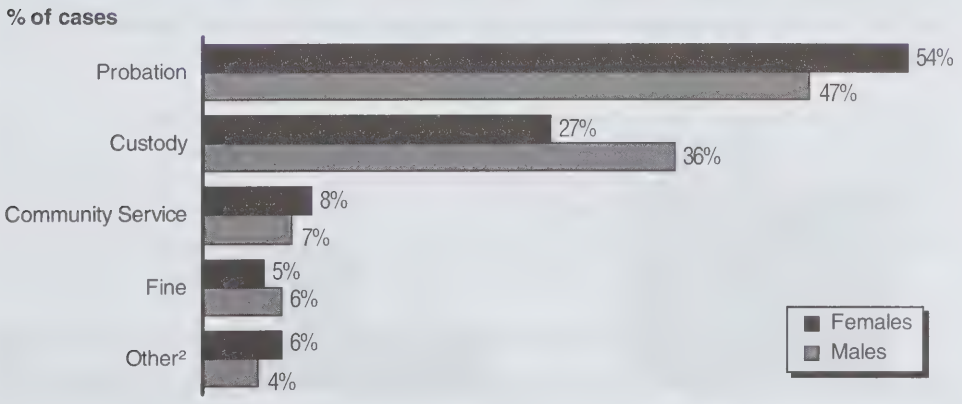
[1] *Based on the most serious sentence for those aged 18 years and over. The data represent approximately 80% of the caseload in adult provincial/territorial criminal courts.*

[2] *Includes restitution and compensation.*

Source: *Statistics Canada, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Adult Criminal Court Survey.*

Chart 8.12

Distribution of sentences of young offenders, 1997-98[1]



[1] *Based on the most serious sentence for young persons aged 12-17.*

[2] *Includes absolute discharge, conditional discharge, compensation and restitution.*

Source: *Statistics Canada, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Youth Court Survey.*

Differences in sentencing for males and females, both adults and youths, can be influenced by a number of factors, including criminal history of the offenders and seriousness of the offences that were committed. In fact, it is interesting to note that female youths are less likely to be repeat offenders than male youths. In 1997-98, 33% of young women who were found guilty had one or more prior convictions, versus a figure of 45% among young male offenders.[14]

Young women were also less likely to be persistent offenders, defined as having three or more prior convictions. In 1997-98, 6% of cases involving young women involved persistent offenders, less than half the figure for cases involving young men (13%).[14]

Young women a significant proportion of participants in alternative measures

Alternative measures, which are programs used instead of the court system to deal with people who are accused of less serious crimes, appear to be used relatively more often for young women than young men. In 1997-98, young women represented approximately 36% of all participants in alternative measures cases such as apologizing to the victim, writing an essay, providing personal service to the victim, taking part in educational sessions, or performing community service, whereas they accounted for just 22% of youths who were charged and 21% of cases brought to youth court.[15]

Women in prison

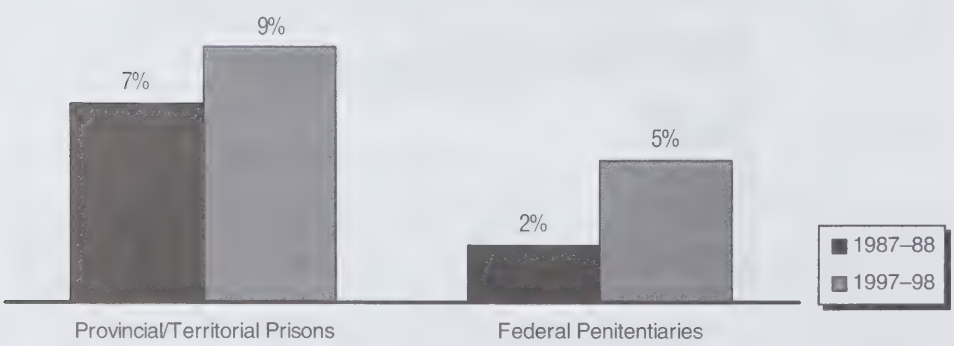
Women make up a very small proportion of all persons admitted to prison[16] in Canada. In 1997-98, only 9% of adults admitted to provincial/territorial prisons were women, while the figure for federal penitentiaries was even lower, with women representing 5% of sentenced admissions to these institutions that year. (Chart 8.13)

Women as a proportion of those admitted to prisons has increased somewhat in the past decade. Between 1986-87 and 1997-98, for example, women as a percentage of those admitted to provincial/territorial prisons rose from 7% to 9%, while the share in federal penitentiaries increased from 2% to 5%.

Young female offenders make up a somewhat greater share of youths sentenced to custodial care. In 1997-98, young female offenders made up 16% of total admissions to secure custody and 18% of admissions to open custody.[17]

WOMEN IN CANADA Chart 8.13

Women as a percentage of those sentenced to prison, 1987-88 and 1997-98



Source: *Statistics Canada, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Adult Correctional Services Survey.*

Characteristics of female inmates

According to a "snapshot survey" of inmates in all adult correctional facilities in Canada, there were 1,807 female inmates on-register in Canadian correction facilities on October 5, 1996, when they represented just 5% of all inmates.[18]

Female inmates tend to be younger, on average, than women in the general public. In 1996, the median age was 32 years for women in provincial/territorial prisons and 33 years for those in federal institutions, compared to 43 years for all adult women in Canada. (Table 8.8)

Aboriginal women also make up a relatively high proportion of the female inmate population in Canada. In 1996, Aboriginal women made up 23% of all provincial/territorial inmates and 20% of inmates in federal institutions, whereas they represented only 2% of all women in Canada.

Female inmates were also characterized by the fact that they were both more likely to be single, and to be less educated, than women in the overall population. At the same time, female inmates were also significantly more likely to be unemployed at the time of their admission than the general female population. In fact, in 1996, 64% of women in provincial/territorial prisons, and fully 80% of those in federal institutions, were unemployed at the time of incarceration, compared with less than 10% of all women.

At the time of the snapshot, women in federal facilities were most likely to be there for homicide or attempted murder (37%) or for drug-related offences (27%). At the same time, the largest proportions of female inmates in provincial/territorial prisons had been convicted of either drug-related offences (13%) or theft (12%). In both types of facilities, a smaller proportion of women than men were incarcerated for violent offences. (Table 8.9)

Female inmates in provincial/territorial prisons had a less extensive criminal history than their male counterparts. Of women in these institutions in 1996, half (50%) had either no or one previous adult conviction, compared with 36% of male inmates. Further, the percentage of women with five or more previous convictions was close to half the figure for men: 12% compared with 21%.[19]

Consistent with having fewer and less serious offences, female inmates generally have shorter total time to serve than male inmates. In 1996, the median aggregate sentence length for inmates in provincial/territorial prisons was 5.1 months for women, compared with 6.1 months for men. The comparable figures for federal penitentiaries were 4.5 years for women and 4.9 years for men. Over one in five (21%) female federal inmates, however, were serving a life sentence, slightly higher than the comparable figure for males (18%).[18]

The type of accommodations in both provincial/territorial and federal penal facilities also differs somewhat for female and male inmates. In provincial/territorial prisons, for example, women were more likely than men to be incarcerated in a maximum-security facility, while in federal penitentiaries, they were more likely to be housed in a multi-level facility. Part of the reason for these differences may be a lack of variety in institutions for female inmates due to smaller numbers of inmates. (Table 8.10)

Women working in the criminal justice system

There has been a sharp rise in the number of women police officers in the past several decades. As of June 15, 1998, there were 6,700 female police officers[20] in Canada, representing 12% of all officers. In contrast, the figure had been less than 4% in the mid-1980s. (Table 8.11)

WOMEN IN CANADA

Women's federal correctional facilities

Prior to 1996, women sentenced to serve terms in a federal penitentiary had to be housed in either the Prison for Women in Kingston, Ontario or in a provincial/territorial facility under an Exchange of Service Agreement, or they were placed on conditional release in the community. Usually, though, because they were few in number, these women were incarcerated away from their families and homes. Further, the range of programs available to them was limited.

This situation changed in 1996 when five new regional facilities were established for federally sentenced women. Female federal inmates can now be housed closer to home where they have greater access to family and other support. The new facilities, which are multi-level, take a more holistic, community-oriented approach. There is an emphasis on utilizing existing community services whenever feasible. Some programs developed and offered within the facility may be open to the community.

Women are also beginning to move up into higher police ranks. In 1998, women represented 2.2% of all senior officers, up from just 0.2% in 1986. Similarly, women as a proportion of non-commissioned officers rose from 0.5% to 3.9% in the same period, while they currently make up 15.5% of constables, up from 5.4% a decade or so ago. (Table 8.11)

Female police officers tend to be younger, on average, than their male counterparts. In 1996, over two-thirds (68%) of women police officers were below the age of 35, compared to less than one in three (32%) men. This is not surprising given recent efforts to recruit more women. At the same time, female officers also had higher levels of education. For example, one-quarter of female officers had a university degree, nearly double the figure for male officers.[21]

More women in other justice-related occupations

There have also been significant increases in women's representation in other justice-related occupations in recent years. Between 1991 and 1996, for example, the number of females judges increased by 45%; as a result, women made up 21% of all judges in 1996, up from 15% in 1991. (Table 8.12)

There has also been a substantial increase in the number of female lawyers and notaries in the 1991-96 period. Consequently, by 1996, women made up 31% of all those in these professions, up from 27% in 1991. Women also increased their share of employment among both correctional service officers and paralegals in the first half of the 1990s. In contrast, the only justice-related occupation in which women's share of employment dropped was among probation and parole officers; however, the number of women employed in this occupation did increase in the 1991-96 time frame, although at a slower rate than that for men.

Sandra Besserer and **Valerie Pottie Bunge** are senior analysts with the Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics.

1 *This analysis is based on reported crime. However, many crimes are not reported to the police.*

2 *This is based on police-reported data taken from the Revised Uniform Crime Reporting Survey (UCR2). In 1998, this survey collected detailed data from 169 police departments in six provinces. These data represent 46% of the national volume of crime. The reader is cautioned that these data are not nationally representative.*

3 *Violent offences include any offence that involves the threat or use of violence against a person. Homicide, assault, sexual assault, robbery, and abduction are examples of violent offences.*

4 *Throughout this document, "spouse" includes both current and previous partners, except for data from the Transition Home Survey where current and previous partners are analyzed separately.*

5 *The data in this section is from the Statistics Canada's 1999 General Social Survey, unless noted otherwise. For more information on the results from this survey related to spousal violence, see* Family Violence in Canada: A Statistical Profile, *Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 85-224-XPE, 2000.*

6 *Note that these figures from the 1993 Violence Against Women Survey may differ from other published figures from that survey. The analysis of data from the 1993 survey referred to here has been restricted to reports of violence in the five-year period preceding the survey in order to compare results with the same time period measured by the 1999 General Social Survey.*

7 *This section is based on data from the Homicide Survey. For more information on this topic, see "Homicide in Canada – 1998" by Orest Fedorowycz, in* Juristat, *Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 85-002-XIE, Vol. 19, no. 10.*

8 *The term shelter is used broadly to refer to all residential facilities for abused women and their dependent children.*

9 *For more information on this topic, see "Canada's Shelters for Abused Women" by Cathy Trainor, in* Juristat, *Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 85-002-XIE, Vol. 19, no.6.*

10 *Refers to all federal statute offences, including* Criminal Code, Controlled Drugs and Substances Act, *and* Narcotic Control Act.

11 *Source: Statistics Canada, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Homicide Survey.*

12 *This is based only on those incidents where there was a single victim and a single accused, that is, about three-quarters of solved homicides.*

13 *Source: Statistics Canada, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Adult Criminal Court Survey. In 1997-98, this survey collected information on cases disposed in the provincial/territorial courts of 9 provinces and territories, representing about 80% of the national caseload in provincial/territorial courts.*

14 *Source: Statistics Canada, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Youth Court Survey.*

15 *For more information on this topic, see "Alternative Measures for Youth in Canada" by Melanie Kowalski, in* Juristat, *Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 85-002-XIE, Vol. 19, no. 8, June 1999. National data are not yet available on adult participation in alternative measures programs.*

16 *In Canada, there are two types of prisons for adults: federal penitentiaries, which house inmates sentenced to a term of two years or longer, and provincial/territorial prisons, which house inmates sentenced to less than two years. Convicted youths can be sentenced to two types of custody: secure and open. Secure custody entails spending time in a youth detention/correctional facility. Open custody, a less restrictive form, is usually served in a community group home.*

17 *Excludes data from Saskatchewan.*

18 *Source: Statistics Canada, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, A One Day Snapshot of Inmates in Canada's Adult Correctional Facilities Survey.*

19 *Prior conviction data were not available through this survey for federal inmates.*

20 *This is based on data collected through the Police Administration Statistics Annual Survey. The number of officers includes permanent, full-time staff. The number of part-time officers is converted to a full-time equivalent.*

21 *Source: Statistics Canada, 1996 Census of Canada.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 8.1

Victims of violent crime, by type of crime, 1998[1]

	Female victims	Male victims	Female victims as a % of all victims	Male victims as a % of all victims
			%	
Type of violent crime				
Homicide	0.1	0.3	31.8	68.2
Attempted murder	0.2	0.4	26.3	73.7
Sexual assault – all levels	10.9	1.9	84.6	15.4
Other sexual offences	1.5	0.5	74.3	25.7
Aggravated assault	0.4	1.4	21.0	79.0
Assault with a weapon causing bodily harm	8.8	17.2	33.2	66.8
Common assault	51.0	45.5	52.0	48.0
Other assaults	1.3	6.0	17.6	82.4
Kidnapping/abduction	1.5	0.9	62.4	37.6
Robbery	9.4	15.1	37.8	62.2
Criminal harassment	6.4	1.7	78.2	21.8
Other violent offences	8.4	9.0	48.7	51.3
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**49.2**	**50.8**
Total number of victims	**69,494**	**71,860**	...	...

[1] *These data are from a non-random sample of 169 police agencies, representing 46% of the national volume of crime.*

Source: *Statistics Canada, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Revised Uniform Crime Reporting Survey.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 8.2

Age distribution of victims of violent crime, by type of offence, 1998[1]

	Female victims aged					Male victims aged				
	Number of female victims	Under 12	12-17	18 and over	Total	Number of male victims	Under 12	12-17	18 and over	Total
			%					%		
Homicide	98	11	9	80	100	207	9	4	87	100
Attempted murder	117	5	6	89	100	332	2	7	92	100
Sexual assaults – all levels	7,483	21	32	48	100	1,359	49	27	24	100
Other sexual offences	1,062	46	39	15	100	369	61	28	11	100
Assault	40,675	4	12	84	100	44,511	6	18	76	100
Other assaults	675	2	6	92	100	2,778	1	3	96	100
Kidnapping/abduction	1,009	12	16	71	100	616	25	14	61	100
Robbery	6,436	1	9	90	100	10,654	3	28	69	100
Extortion	149	3	16	81	100	455	5	27	68	100
Criminal harassment	4,319	1	7	92	100	1,188	2	7	91	100
Other violent offences	5,445	3	12	85	100	5,660	4	10	86	100
Total	**67,468**	**6**	**14**	**80**	**100**	**68,129**	**7**	**18**	**75**	**100**

[1] *These data are from a non-random sample of 169 police agencies, representing 46% of the national volume of crime. Incidents where the age of the victim is unknown were excluded.*

Source: *Statistics Canada, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Revised Uniform Crime Reporting Survey.*

 Table 8.3

Victims of violent crime, by relationship to accused, 1998[1]

Relationship of victim to accused	Female victims	Male victims
	%	
Family		
Spousal relationship		
Spouse	21	3
Ex-spouse	11	2
Total spouse	32	5
Other family		
Parent	4	3
Child	2	1
Other immediate	3	2
Extended family	2	1
Total other family	11	7
Total family	**43**	**12**
Acquaintances		
Close friend	10	3
Business relationship	5	9
Casual acquaintance	20	30
Total acquaintances	**35**	**42**
Stranger	22	46
Total	**100**	**100**
Total number of victims	**66,472**	**67,049**

[1] *These data are from a non-random sample of 169 police agencies, representing 46% of the national volume of crime. Incidents where the accused-victim relationship is unknown are excluded.*

Source: *Statistics Canada, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Revised Uniform Crime Reporting Survey.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 8.4

Number and percentage of women and men aged 15 years and over who reported violence by a current or previous spouse[1] over past 5-year period, by type of violence, 1999

	Female victims		Male victims	
	000s	%	000s	%
Type of violence				
Threatened to hit	449	65	333	61
Threw something	301	44	305	56
Pushed, grabbed or shoved	561	81	237	43
Slapped	276	40	313	57
Kicked, bit or hit	227	33	279	51
Hit with something	155	23	143	26
Beat	172	25	54	10
Choked	139	20	24	4†
Used or threatened to use a gun or knife	91	13	41	7†
Sexual assault	138	20	14	3†
Total violence by any spouse	**690**	**100**	**549**	**100**

† *Coefficient of variation is high (16.6% to 33.3%).*
[1] *Includes common-law partners, but excludes people who refused to state their marital status.*
Note: *Figures do not add to 100% due to multiple responses.*
Source: *Statistics Canada, General Social Survey.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 8.5

Frequency of reported violent spousal incidents over past 5-year period, by sex of victim, 1999

	Female victims		Male victims	
	000s	%	000s	%
Once	225	33	227	41
2-5 times	197	29	194	35
6-10 times	72	10	35	6†
More than 10 times	178	26	72	13
Not stated/don't know	17	3†	21	4†
Total violence by any spouse	**690**	**100**	**549**	**100**

† *Coefficient of variation is high (16.6% to 33.3%).*
Source: *Statistics Canada, General Social Survey.*

Victims of homicide, by relationship to accused, 1998

Relationship of accused to victim	Female victims		Male victims	
	Number	%	Number	%
Family				
Spousal relationship				
Spouse	46	26.1	12	3.2
Ex-spouse	11	6.3	1	0.3
Total spouse	57	32.4	13	3.4
Other family				
Parent	24	13.6	27	7.1
Child	8	4.5	12	3.2
Other immediate	3	1.7	6	1.6
Extended family	10	5.7	11	2.9
Total other family	45	25.6	56	14.8
Total family	**102**	**58.0**	**69**	**18.2**
Acquaintances				
Close friend	17	9.7	21	5.5
Business relationship	4	2.3	39	10.3
Casual acquaintance	22	12.5	90	23.7
Total acquaintances	**43**	**24.4**	**150**	**39.6**
Other				
Stranger	12	6.8	53	14.0
Relationship unknown	--	--	2	0.5
Unsolved/no accused	19	10.8	105	27.7
Total	**176**	**100.0**	**379**	**100.0**

Source: *Statistics Canada, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Homicide Survey.*

Adult and young females charged, by type of crime, 1998

	Women aged 18 and over		Females aged 12-17	
	Total charged	% of adults charged	Total charged	% of youths charged
Violent offences				
Homicide	55	13	2	4
Attempted murder	64	12	3	4
Sexual assault – all levels	137	2	48	3
Other sexual offences	23	3	4	3
Assault	14,732	15	5,073	30
Abduction	88	45	-	-
Robbery	538	9	522	15
Total violent offences	**15,637**	**14**	**5,652**	**26**
Property offences				
Breaking and entering	1,499	6	1,521	10
Motor vehicle theft	626	7	883	14
Theft over $5,000	434	21	84	17
Theft $5,000 and under	19,506	30	7,904	33
Possession of stolen goods	2,106	14	919	18
Fraud	7,478	30	642	33
Total property offences	**31,649**	**23**	**11,953**	**22**
Other *Criminal Code*				
Prostitution	3,086	54	170	90
Bail violations	7,205	17	2,717	29
Mischief	1,675	12	782	11
Other	8,888	13	3,033	21
Total other *Criminal Code* offences	**20,854**	**16**	**6,702**	**22**
Total *Criminal Code* offences	**68,140**	**18**	**24,307**	**23**
Other Federal Statutes				
Drug offences	5,485	14	788	14
Other	806	15	1,220	27
Total other Federal Statutes offences	**6,291**	**14**	**2,008**	**20**
Total all offences	**74,431**	**18**	**26,315**	**22**

Sources: *Statistics Canada, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Uniform Crime Reporting Survey and Homicide Survey.*

Table 8.8

Selected characteristics of female inmates of federal and provincial/territorial correctional facilities, 1996

	Female inmates		Total adult female population in Canada[1]
	Provincial/ territorial	Federal	
		%	
Age			
18-24	18	17	12
25-34	43	40	20
35-44	27	30	22
45-54	8	10	17
55 and over	2	2	30
Total	100	100	100
Median age	32	33	43
Aboriginal status			
Non-Aboriginal	77	80	98
Aboriginal	23	20	2
Total	100	100	100
Marital status			
Married	24	31	63
Single	56	52	20
Separated, divorced or widowed	20	17	17
Total	100	100	100
Education			
Grade 8 or less	22	29	12
Grade 9-10	34	32	11
Grade 11 or higher	43	38	76
Total	100	100	100
Employment status			
Unemployed	64	80	9
Employed	36	20	91
Total	100	100	100

[1] *Refers to women aged 18 years and over for Aboriginal and marital status and 15 years and over for education and employment status.*

Source: *Statistics Canada, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, A One Day Snapshot of Inmates in Canada's Adult Correctional Facilities Survey.*

Inmates of federal and provincial/territorial correctional facilities, by type of offence, 1996[1]

	Provincial/territorial prisons[2]		Federal penitentiaries[2]	
	Females	Males	Females	Males
	%			
Violent offences				
Homicide/attempted murder	5	3	37	24
Sexual assault	2	7	1	14
Assault	9	12	10	4
Robbery	9	9	13	24
Other violent	2	3	3	7
Total violent offences	**28**	**34**	**64**	**74**
Property offences				
Breaking and entering	8	19	--	12
Theft	12	7	4	1
Fraud	10	3	--	--
Other property	5	6	--	2
Total property offences	**36**	**35**	**7**	**15**
Other *Criminal Code* and Federal offences				
Weapons offences	2	3	--	--
Impaired driving	5	6	--	1
Drug offences	13	9	27	8
Other	17	13	2	2
Total other offences	**36**	**31**	**29**	**11**
Total offences	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
Total inmates	**1,484**	**20,537**	**210**	**13,619**

[1] *Based on the most serious offence for which inmates were incarcerated.*

[2] *Data are missing for 1,658 provincial/territorial inmates and 33 federal inmates.*

Source: *Statistics Canada, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, A One Day Snapshot of Inmates in Canada's Adult Correctional Facilities Survey.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 8.10

Security levels for inmates of federal and provincial/territorial correctional facilities, 1996

Security level	Provincial/territorial prisons		Federal penitentiaries	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
	%			
Minimum	13	8	6	14
Medium	7	13	8	64
Maximum	46	39	-	20
Multi-level	35	41	86	2
Total	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**

Source: *Statistics Canada, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, A One Day Snapshot of Inmates in Canada's Adult Correctional Facilities Survey.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 8.11

Female police officers, by rank, 1986-1998

	Senior officers[1]		Non-commissioned officers[2]		Constables		Total female officers	
	Number	As a % of all senior officers	Number	As a % of non-commissioned officers	Number	As a % of constables	Number	As a % of total officers
1986	6	0.2	64	0.5	1,924	5.4	1,994	3.9
1987	5	0.2	82	0.6	2,218	6.1	2,305	4.4
1988	4	0.2	110	0.8	2,594	7.0	2,708	5.1
1989	8	0.3	156	1.1	2,979	7.9	3,143	5.8
1990	10	0.4	177	1.3	3,386	8.6	3,573	6.4
1991	11	0.4	196	1.4	3,757	9.5	3,964	7.0
1992	20	0.7	233	1.6	4,033	10.2	4,286	7.5
1993	33	1.2	265	1.8	4,263	10.8	4,561	8.0
1994	33	1.3	312	2.2	4,711	12.0	5,056	9.1
1995	38	1.6	379	2.7	4,961	12.8	5,378	9.8
1996	39	1.7	408	3.0	5,187	13.5	5,634	10.4
1997	47	2.1	458	3.4	5,586	14.3	6,091	11.1
1998	48	2.2	510	3.9	6,128	15.5	6,686	12.2

[1] *Includes officers who have achieved the rank of lieutenant or higher.*
[2] *Includes personnel between the rank of constable and lieutenant.*
Source: *Statistics Canada, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Police Administration Annual Survey.*

 Table 8.12

Women in justice-related occupations, 1991 and 1996

	1991		1996	
	Number	As a % of total in occupational group	Number	As a % of total in occupational group
Occupation[1]				
Judges	330	15	480	21
Lawyers and notaries	14,335	27	17,985	31
Paralegal and related occupations	12,180	76	15,875	79
Probation and parole officers	1,825	50	2,165	47
Correctional service officers	3,615	21	4,455	24

[1] *Based on the 1991 Standard Occupational Classification.*

Source: *Statistics Canada, Censuses of Canada.*

CHAPTER 9

Immigrant Women

by Jennifer Chard, Jane Badets and Linda Howatson-Leo

A growing population

Many women in Canada are immigrants from another country. These women are not Canadian citizens by birth, but have been granted landed immigrant status which gives them the right to live in Canada permanently. It is also important to note that some immigrants have lived in Canada for a number of years, while others are recent arrivals. According to the Census of Canada, there were 2.6 million female immigrants living here in 1996. The female immigrant population had increased in size by 16% between 1991 and 1996, a growth rate nearly four times that of the Canadian-born female population.[1]

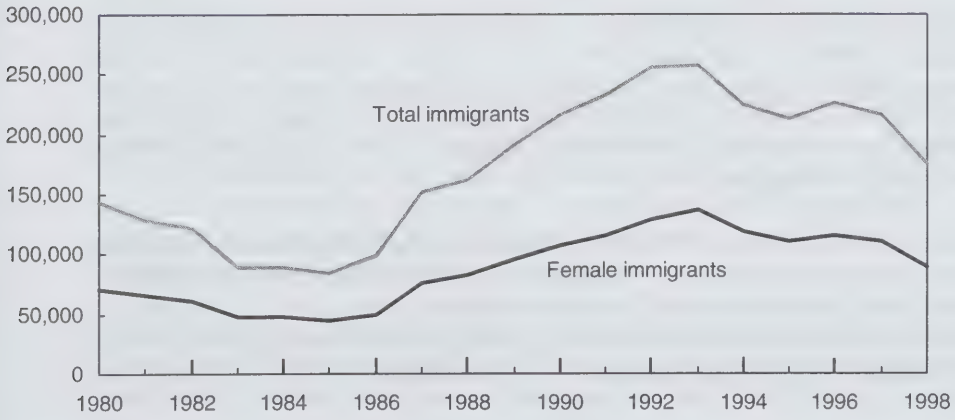
As a result of increasing immigration, the share of the female population accounted for by immigrant women is currently the largest it has been in more than 50 years. In 1996, female immigrants represented 18% of all women living in Canada, up from 16% in 1991, 15% in 1981, and 14% in 1971.

Higher immigrant flows in the 1990s

The increase in the size of the female immigrant population in Canada reflects higher annual immigration levels during the 1990s. According to data from Citizenship and Immigration Canada, an average of about 224,000 immigrants were admitted to Canada each year between 1990 and 1998. In comparison, in the period 1980-89, Canada welcomed, on average, about 126,000 immigrants per year. (Chart 9.1)

WOMEN IN CANADA Chart 9.1

Immigrants arriving in Canada between 1980 and 1998



Source: *Citizenship and Immigration Canada.*

WOMEN IN CANADA

Canada's immigration classes

The number of immigrants entering Canada each year is largely determined by government policies controlling admissions. Since the late 1970s, Canada's immigration policy has been guided by three broad objectives: (1) to reunite families, (2) to foster a strong and viable economy in all regions of Canada, and (3) to fulfil Canada's international legal obligations and compassionate and humanitarian traditions with respect to refugees.[2] These objectives are reflected in the primary categories under which people are admitted to Canada each year as permanent residents: family, economic, and refugee.

The family class of immigrants includes people sponsored to come to Canada by close relatives who are already living here. Economic immigrants include skilled workers and business immigrants, such as investors, entrepreneurs, and the self-employed, as well as spouses and dependants of these persons. The refugee class includes people who are unable or unwilling to return to their home country because of fear of persecution for reasons of race, religion, nationality, political opinion, or membership in a particular social group. As well, the refugee category includes people displaced by emergency situations and people whom Canada has recognised as being in a special class for humanitarian reasons.

Only economic immigrants are selected for immigration on the basis of their labour market skills. Since 1967, skilled workers have been rated on a "point" system based on their age, education, training, occupational skills, demand for their occupation in Canada, existence of pre-arranged employment, and knowledge of English or French.

Women comprise just over half of all people who immigrate to Canada each year. In 1998, 51% of all immigrants to this country were female.

Most women come to Canada with their spouse or family

Most women immigrate with their families. Citizenship and Immigration Canada data show that nearly four in 10 female immigrants who entered Canada in 1998 came as spouses or dependants of economic immigrants, while an additional 35% came as family class immigrants. (Table 9.1)

In general, female immigrants to Canada are more likely than their male counterparts to have immigrated under provisions of the family class. In 1998, 35% of female immigrants, versus 23% of male immigrants, entered as family class immigrants.

Interestingly, while immigrant women are very likely to enter Canada as spouses or dependants of principal applicants in the economic class, relatively few women are themselves principal applicants in that class. In 1998, women were three times less likely than men to immigrate under the economic category. That year, 12% of female immigrants came to Canada as either skilled workers or businesswomen, compared with 34% of male immigrants.

Female immigrants are also somewhat less likely than male immigrants to have been admitted to Canada as refugees. In 1998, 12% of female immigrants, versus 14% of male immigrants, were admitted to Canada for humanitarian reasons. The 10 previous years reflect a similar pattern: women accounted for 11% of refugees admitted to Canada between 1989 and 1998, while men accounted for 16%.[3]

Many immigrant women are recent arrivals

Many immigrant women have arrived in Canada only very recently. According to the Census, about two in 10 female immigrants living in Canada in 1996 were recent immigrants, that is, they had landed in this country between 1991 and the first four months of 1996. An additional 22% of immigrant women had arrived here between 1981 and 1990. (Table 9.2)

Recent immigrants can have quite different characteristics, not only from the Canadian-born, but also from more established immigrants. Women who are born in Canada and women who have immigrated here in different periods may vary in terms of their visible minority status, age, language abilities, educational qualifications, employment situations, and income. It is important to remember that not all immigrant women have the same demographic and socioeconomic characteristics and that they may, in fact, have quite diverse lifestyles and different experiences in the Canadian labour market.

Country of origin for immigrants is changing

One way in which recent immigrants and established immigrants differ is in their places of birth. Sources of immigration to Canada have changed in recent decades and while many of Canada's earlier female immigrants are from the United Kingdom, Europe, or the United States, growing numbers are now from Asia and the Middle East, Africa, and Central and South America.

Immigrants with the longest residency in Canada tend to be from Europe. Nine in 10 women living in Canada in 1996 who immigrated here prior to 1961 were born in Europe, as were nearly seven in 10 women who immigrated here between 1961 and 1970. (Table 9.3)

In contrast, this country's newest residents are much more likely to have been born in Asia. Among females who immigrated to Canada between 1991 and 1996, 57% were born in Asia or the Middle East, while just 19% were born in Europe. In addition, 13% of recent immigrant women were born in either countries in Central America, South America, and the Caribbean or Bermuda, while 7% were born in Africa, and 4% were born in other regions.

In fact, the most common places of birth for recent immigrant women include Hong Kong, the People's Republic of China, the Philippines, and India. At the time of the last Census, Hong Kong was the birthplace of 10% of all female immigrants who had arrived in Canada between 1991 and 1996, while 9% had been born in the People's Republic of China, 8% were from the Philippines (8%), and 7% were from India. At the same time, 4% had been born in each of Sri Lanka and Poland, 3% were from each of Vietnam, Taiwan, and the United States, and 2% were from the United Kingdom.[1]

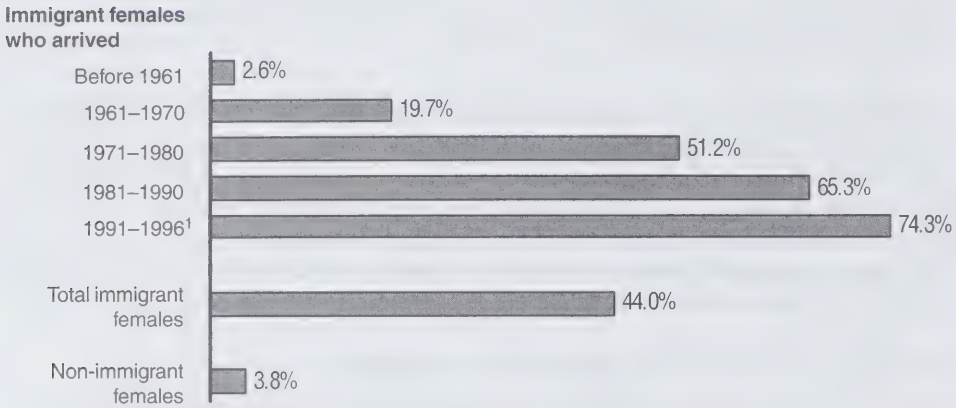
More recent immigrant women belong to a visible minority group

As the source countries of immigration to Canada have changed, the number of immigrant women who belong to a visible minority group has increased.[4] Indeed, almost three-quarters of females who arrived in Canada between 1991 and 1996 are visible minorities. In marked contrast, just 3% of women who arrived in Canada before 1961 belonged to a visible minority group. (Chart 9.2)

Overall, immigrant women are 11 times more likely to be visible minorities than are Canadian-born women. In 1996, 44% of all immigrant women residing in Canada belonged to a visible minority group, compared with just 4% of Canadian-born women.

 Chart 9.2

Proportion of females who are visible minorities, by immigrant status and period of immigration, Canada, 1996



[1] *Includes only the first four months of 1996.*
Source: *Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.*

The vast majority of immigrant women settle in urban areas

Canada's major metropolitan centres act as important gateways for newcomers, who are drawn to these cities by family ties, community contacts, and economic opportunities. As a result, immigrants, particularly recent immigrants, tend to settle in these large urban areas. At the time of the 1996 Census, 85% of all female immigrants, and 93% of recent female immigrants, lived in a census metropolitan area (CMA). In comparison, only 57% of Canadian-born females lived in CMAs that year. (Table 9.4)

The vast majority of immigrant women live in Toronto, Vancouver or Montréal.[5] In 1996, 60% of all female immigrants, and 73% of recent female immigrants, lived in one of these CMAs. In fact, 36% of all immigrant women, and 43% of recent immigrant women, lived in Toronto that year. Vancouver was the next most popular destination, being home to 13% of all female immigrants, and 18% of recent female immigrants, followed by Montréal, which was the place of residence for 12% of both all female immigrants and recent female immigrants.

After Toronto, Vancouver and Montréal, female immigrants are next most likely to live in the CMAs of Calgary, Edmonton, Ottawa, Hamilton, and Winnipeg. These CMAs were each home to between 2% and 3% of immigrant women at the time of the 1996 Census.

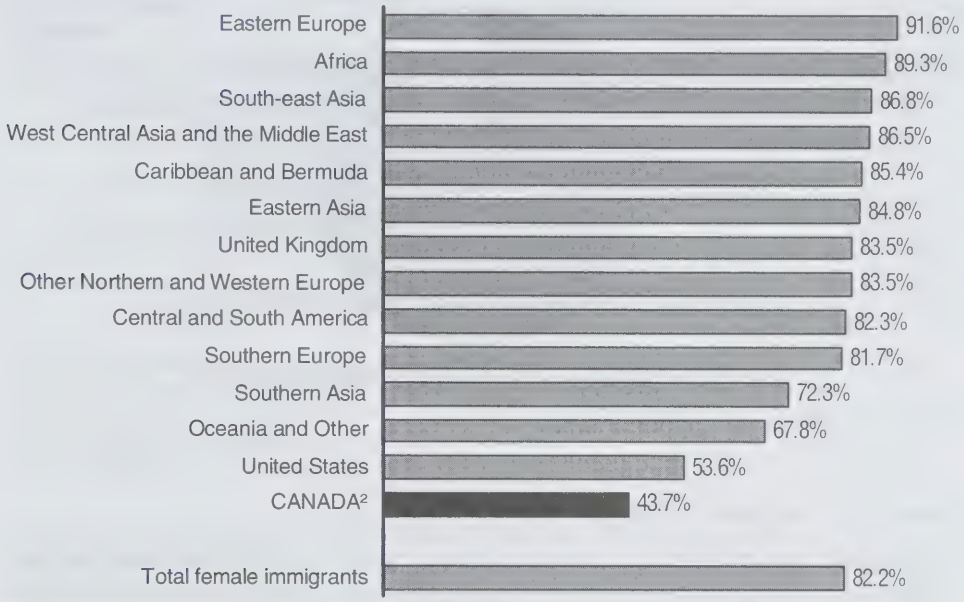
The attraction of immigrants to specific urban centres explains, in part, the tendency of immigrant women to live in certain provinces. In 1996, 94% of all immigrant women, and 96% of recent immigrant women, lived in Ontario, British Columbia, Quebec or Alberta. In comparison, 84% of Canadian-born women lived in these provinces.[1]

Most immigrant women are Canadian citizens

The majority of immigrants who settle in Canada obtain Canadian citizenship as soon as they are eligible to do so, usually three to four years after immigrating.[6] By 1996, 82% of female immigrants who had landed in this country before 1993 had become naturalized Canadian citizens.[7] (Chart 9.3)

Chart 9.3

Proportion of eligible female immigrants who have become naturalized Canadian citizens, by region of birth, 1996[1]



[1] *In order to apply for Canadian citizenship, immigrants must meet certain eligibility criteria, for example, they must have lived in Canada for three years out of the four years right before the day of application. Thus, this table includes only immigrants who arrived in Canada before 1993. Children born in Canada to landed immigrants are Canadian citizens by birth and as such are not included as part of the immigrant population.*

[2] *A small number of immigrants are born in Canada. This includes children of foreign diplomats as well as Canadians by birth who at some point gave up their Canadian citizenship.*

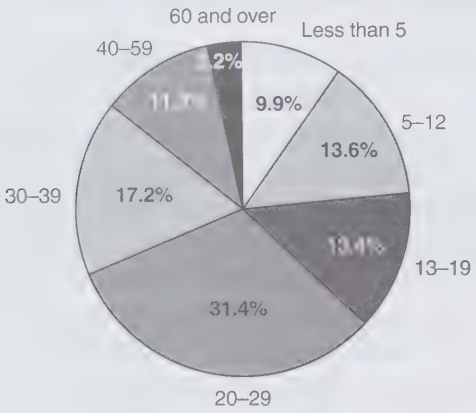
Source: *Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.*

Not surprisingly, immigrants who have resided in Canada for many years are more likely to have obtained Canadian citizenship than are newer residents. More than nine in 10 women who immigrated to this country before 1961 were Canadian citizens by 1996, along with 84% of women who arrived here between 1961 and 1980, and 79% of those who immigrated between 1981 and 1991. In contrast, only 58% of women who had arrived in Canada in 1991 or 1992 had become citizens by 1996.[1]

The tendency to obtain citizenship not only varies by period of immigration, but also by place of birth. For example, about nine in 10 eligible female immigrants from Eastern Europe (92%), Africa (89%), Southeast Asia (87%), and West Central Asia and the Middle East (87%) had obtained citizenship by 1996. In contrast, only 54% of eligible female immigrants from the United States become naturalized Canadian citizens. Those born in Oceania (68%), including Australia, or in Southern Asia (72%) were also somewhat less likely to have obtained citizenship in Canada. (Chart 9.3)

Interestingly, female immigrants are slightly less likely to have obtained Canadian citizenship than male immigrants. By 1996, 82% of all immigrant women living in Canada who were eligible to apply for citizenship had done so, compared with 84% of all eligible immigrant men. Similarly, among recent immigrants, 58% of eligible women, versus 60% of eligible men, had obtained Canadian citizenship by 1996.[1]

Age at immigration of female immigrants living in Canada in 1996



Source: *Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.*

Immigrant women tend to be older

Most immigrants come to Canada when they are young adults. Data from the 1996 Census show that more than three in 10 immigrant women were in their twenties when they became landed immigrants in Canada. In fact, about half of all female immigrants were between the ages of 20 and 39 when they came to this country. (Chart 9.4)

Because female immigrants usually come to Canada as adults, the female immigrant population tends to be older, on average, than their Canadian-born counterparts. At the time of the 1996 Census, the average age for immigrant women was 46 years, while the average age for Canadian-born women was 34. Obviously, period of immigration and age are closely linked, with earlier immigrants to Canada generally being much older than more recent immigrants. For example, the average age for female immigrants who came to Canada before 1961 was 65, while recent immigrants were aged 32, on average. (Table 9.5)

As with the non-immigrant population in Canada, immigrant women tend to be just slightly older than immigrant men. In 1996, the average age for immigrant women was 46 years, compared to an average age of 45 for immigrant men.

As will be illustrated in subsequent sections of this chapter, age differences among recent immigrants, established immigrants, and the Canadian-born population are an important factor in these people's family situations, as well as their language, educational, labour force, and income profiles. Like period of immigration, age can be an important determinant of an immigrant woman's experiences in Canada.

Most living with family

As with other segments of the population, most immigrant women live with their families. In 1996, 87% of immigrant women aged 15-64 were living with their husbands, common-law partners, unmarried children, or parents. An additional 4% of immigrant females in this age range were living with other relatives. This was slightly higher than the proportion of Canadian-born women aged 15-64 who lived with their immediate families (85%) or extended families (2%). (Table 9.6)

Chart 9.5

Lone parents as a percentage of the female population aged 15-44, by immigrant status and period of immigration, 1996



[1] *Includes only the first four months of 1996.*
Source: *Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.*

There are, however, several significant differences in the family status of immigrant and non-immigrant women. For example, immigrants aged 15-64 were considerably more likely than their Canadian-born counterparts to be living with a husband in 1996: 64% versus 48%. In contrast, only 3% of immigrant women, compared with 11% of women born in Canada, were living with a common-law partner that year.

Recent immigrant women less likely to be lone parents

There is very little difference in the proportion of immigrant females and Canadian-born women who are lone parents. Among those aged 15-44, for example, 9% of women in both groups were raising children on their own. (Chart 9.5)

However, women who arrived in Canada between 1991 and 1996 are less likely to be lone parents than other women in Canada. In 1996, 6% of recent immigrant women aged 15-44 were lone parents, compared with 10% of immigrant women who had arrived in Canada in earlier periods, and 9% of non-immigrant women. This occurrence is likely related to the fact that the majority of recent female immigrants moved here with their spouses.

As is the case for Canadian-born women, immigrant women are much more likely to be lone parents than are immigrant men. In 1996, 9% of all immigrant females aged 15-44 were lone parents, compared with 1% of immigrant men in this age group.[1]

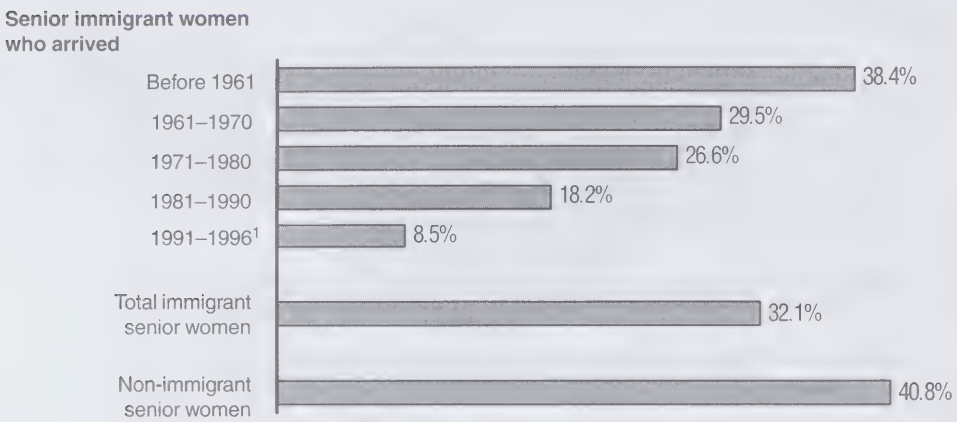
Senior immigrant women less likely to be living alone

Among both immigrants and non-immigrants, senior women are much less likely to live with their immediate families than are younger women and are thus more likely to live alone, with other relatives, or with people to whom they are not related. In 1996, 50% of immigrant women aged 65 and over were living with their husbands, common-law partners, unmarried children, or parents, while 32% were living alone and 16% were living with extended family members. (Table 9.6)

Nevertheless, immigrant women aged 65 and over are much less likely to be living alone than are Canadian-born seniors. In 1996, 32% of senior immigrant women were living alone, compared with 41% of their non-immigrant counterparts. (Chart 9.6)

 Chart 9.6

Proportion of the female population aged 65 and over who are living alone, by immigrant status and period of immigration, 1996



[1] *Includes only the first four months of 1996.*
Source: *Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.*

Instead, senior immigrant women are twice as likely as Canadian-born seniors to be living with extended family members. In 1996, 16% of immigrant women aged 65 and over were living with family other than their partners, unmarried children, or parents, whereas just 8% of Canadian-born women in this age group were living with their extended family. (Table 9.6)

Nine in 10 immigrant women speak English or French

A large majority of immigrant women living in Canada speak at least one of this country's official languages. In 1996, nine in 10 female immigrants aged 15 and over spoke either English or French, or both: 77% could conduct a conversation in English only, while 4% spoke French only, and 11% spoke both official languages.[8] At the same time, 9% of immigrant women could not conduct a conversation in either official language. (Table 9.7)

Not surprisingly, recent immigrant women are less likely to have learned English or French than are immigrant women who have lived in Canada for longer periods of time. However, even newcomers to this country appear to be relatively well equipped with language skills. Among females who arrived here between 1991 and 1996, 84% were able to speak an official language at the time of the 1996 Census, while just 16% could not converse in either English or French.

Immigrant women are more likely not to speak an official language than are immigrant men. In 1996, 9% of all immigrant women aged 15 and over could not conduct a conversation in either French or English, compared with 5% of immigrant men. Similarly, among recent immigrants, 16% of females, versus 11% of males, were unable to speak either language.

Young female immigrants are likely to be attending school

A large proportion of young female immigrants are attending school. Some of these women may be enrolled in classes to improve their language skills, while others may be completing their high school education or pursuing advanced studies at the

postsecondary level. Between September 1995 and May 1996, 87% of female immigrants aged 15-19 were enrolled in the school system either full- or part-time, as were 56% of those aged 20-24, and 18% of those aged 25-44. (Table 9.8)

In fact, immigrant women are more likely to be attending school than their Canadian-born counterparts, with differences in enrolment greatest among those aged 20-24. In the 1995-96 school year, 56% of immigrant females aged 20-24, compared with 48% of non-immigrant females in this age group, were enrolled in classes either full- or part-time.

Recent immigrant women are generally more likely to be in school than are other women in Canada. This is particularly true among women aged 25-44. More than a quarter (26%) of recent immigrant females in this age group were attending school in 1995-96, compared with 16% or less of immigrant women who came to Canada before 1991, and 13% of Canadian-born women.

There are a number of reasons why recent immigrant women have a greater tendency than other women to be in school. Some recent immigrant women may have come to Canada with the specific intention of furthering their education, while others may have decided to improve upon their qualifications or to gain Canadian credentials after encountering difficulties in finding suitable work in the local labour market. As well, a number of recent immigrant women may be attending school to improve their English or French.

Overall, immigrant women and men have very similar rates of school attendance. In fact, there was almost no difference in the proportion of immigrant women and men aged 15-24 who were in school in 1995-96. As with the Canadian-born population, however, older immigrant women were slightly more likely to be attending classes than men. For example, among immigrants aged 25-44, 18% of women were enrolled in courses in 1995-96, compared with 15% of men.

Immigrant women tend to be highly educated

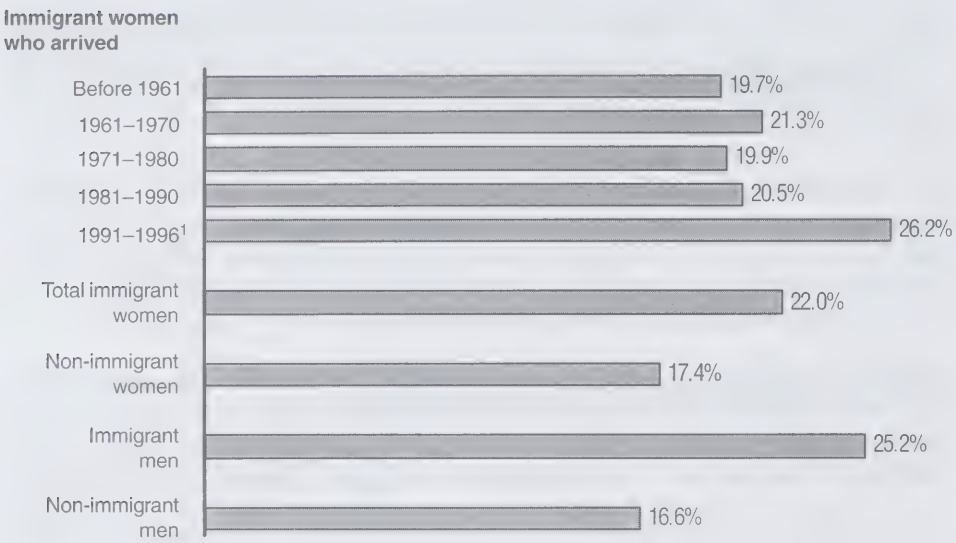
Immigrant women, particularly recent immigrant women, tend to have higher levels of education than Canadian-born females.[9] Focussing on women aged 25-44, 39% of recent immigrants had at least some university education by 1996,[10] compared with 33% of immigrants who arrived here prior to 1991, and 28% of Canadian-born women. (Table 9.9)

Indeed, compared with Canadian-born women and even earlier immigrants, a large proportion of recent immigrant women have university degrees. Among those aged 25-44, 17% of recent immigrant women had a bachelor's or first professional degree in 1996, compared with 15% or less of other immigrants, and 13% of Canadian-born women. As well, 9% of recent immigrant women held higher level certificates, that is a master's degree or earned doctorate, while 6% of earlier immigrant women, and just 4% of Canadian-born women, had credentials above the bachelor's level.

Nevertheless, immigrant women have lower levels of formal education than immigrant men. In 1996, 22% of immigrant women aged 25-44 held a bachelor's degree or higher, compared with 25% of immigrant men in this age group. Interestingly, this gap was greater than that between Canadian-born women and men. Among Canadian-born persons aged 25-44, women were about equally as likely as men to have earned a university degree by 1996. (Chart 9.7)

 Chart 9.7

Proportion of the population aged 25-44 with a bachelor's degree or higher, by immigrant status and period of immigration, 1996



[1] *Includes only the first four months of 1996.*
Source: *Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.*

Recent immigrant women less likely to be in labour force

Compared with Canadian-born women, immigrant women are generally less likely to participate in the labour force; that is, to be employed or looking for work. Women who are not in the labour force may instead be furthering their education, spending time with their families, or they may be unable to work due to illness or disability.

In the week prior to the 1996 Census, 74% of all immigrant women in the 25-44 age range were in the labour force, compared with 80% of non-immigrant women in this age group.[10] Recent immigrants who arrived in Canada between 1991 and 1995 were particularly unlikely to be employed or looking for work that week; in the same period, just 64% of recent immigrant women aged 25-44 were participating in the labour force. (Chart 9.8)

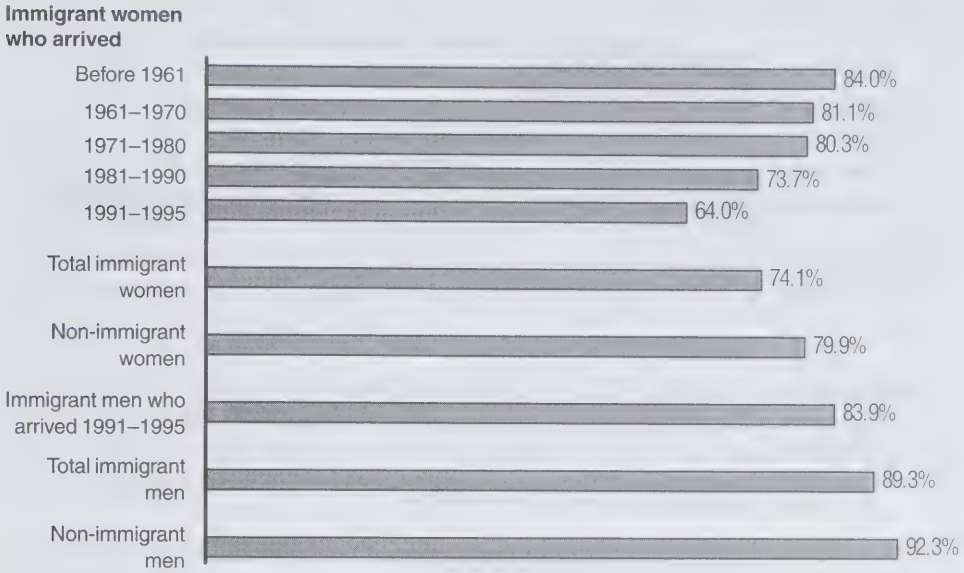
As in the general population, immigrant women tend to have lower labour force participation rates than immigrant men. In the week prior to the 1996 Census, 74% of immigrant women aged 25-44, versus 89% of immigrant men in this age range, were participating in the labour force.

Among Canada's newest immigrants, the disparity in labour force participation rates between women and men is even larger. In the week prior to the latest Census, 64% of immigrant women aged 25-44 who arrived in Canada between 1991 and 1995 were participating in the labour market, compared with more than 84% of recent immigrant men.

The greater tendency of recent immigrant women not to be in the labour force may reflect, in part, the fact that many of these women came here as either family class immigrants or spouses or dependants of economic immigrants, rather than as primary economic class applicants themselves. Many of these recent immigrant women place a high priority on establishing the family household upon arrival in Canada. While a number of these women may eventually enter the labour market, some may never do so.

Chart 9.8

Labour force participation rates for the population aged 25-44, by immigrant status and period of immigration, 1996[1]



[1] *Excludes immigrants who arrived in Canada in 1996.*
Source: *Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.*

Unemployment rates high among recent immigrant women

Women who are looking for employment but who are unable to find jobs are considered to be unemployed. The inability to secure employment can be a barrier to successful settlement in a new homeland; thus, immigrant women who are unemployed may have greater difficulty integrating into Canadian society.

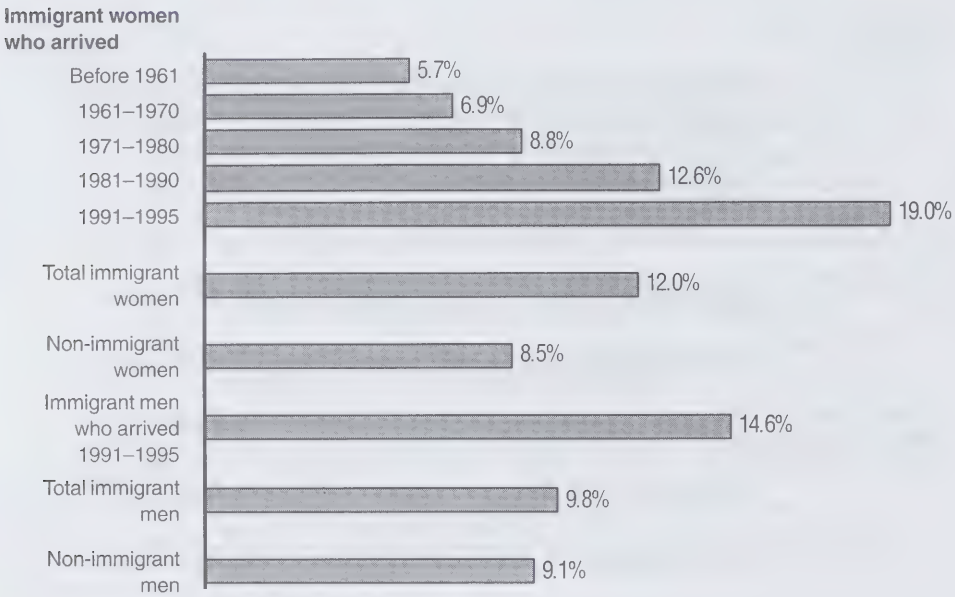
Immigrants, especially recent immigrants, have relatively high rates of unemployment. For example, among women aged 25-44, 12% of all immigrants, and 19% of recent immigrants, were unable to find employment in the week prior to the 1996 Census,[11] compared with just 9% of Canadian-born women aged 25-44. (Chart 9.9)

The initial difficulties that immigrants face in entering the Canadian labour market reflect the temporary adjustment period that many experience while they become established in their new country. It is not surprising that, at least in the short term, immigrants may have difficulty finding employment, as moving into a new home, making contacts, and applying for jobs in a different country take time. However, compared with a decade ago, recent immigrants seem to be having increasing difficulty in finding jobs. Between 1986 and 1996, the unemployment rate for recent immigrant women nearly doubled, rising from 10% to 19%. In comparison, unemployment rates for Canadian-born women increased only very slightly in the past decade, rising from 8% in 1986 to 9% in 1996.[12]

Although it might be thought that recent immigrant women and men might face similar employment barriers upon arrival in Canada, it appears that immigrant women have more difficulty than their male counterparts when it comes to finding employment. As well, disparities in unemployment rates between the genders are, in fact, more

 Chart 9.9

Unemployment rates for the population aged 25-44, by immigrant status and period of immigration, 1996[1]



[1] *Excludes immigrants who arrived in Canada in 1996.*
Source: *Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.*

pronounced for recent immigrants than for earlier immigrants, or Canadian-born women and men. In the week prior to the 1996 Census, 19% of recent immigrant women aged 25-44 were unemployed, compared with 15% of recent immigrant men.

The difference in unemployment rates between recent immigrant women and men may be related to women's roles within the family. These women, for example, may face a greater challenge in finding jobs that allow them to balance family, household, and employment responsibilities while settling into life in their new country.

Language difficulties not only factor leading to high unemployment rates

Higher unemployment rates among recent immigrant women may be caused, in part, by difficulties with the English and French languages. Indeed, data from the 1996 Census indicate that among the population aged 25-44, unemployment rates were considerably higher among recent immigrant women who did not speak either official language (26%), when compared to those of recent immigrant women who did speak either, or both, English or French (19%).[11] (Table 9.10)

However, even recent immigrant women who can speak one of Canada's official languages have considerably more difficulty finding jobs than their counterparts who immigrated here in earlier periods or who were born in Canada. Specifically, among females aged 25-44 who could speak at least one of Canada's official languages, the unemployment rate of recent immigrant women was about twice as high as that of both earlier immigrant women and non-immigrant women in the week prior to the 1996 Census.

Education does not always mean employment

For the Canadian-born, more often than not, education is the key to finding employment. The situation for recent immigrants, however, is somewhat different. Although recent immigrant women do have a greater chance of finding employment when they have a postsecondary education, even very educated immigrant women have high unemployment rates compared with Canadian-born women.

In fact, university-educated women aged 25-44 who immigrated to Canada between 1991 and 1995[10] have a higher rate of unemployment than Canadian-born women of almost any educational background. In the week prior to the 1996 Census, recent immigrant women aged 25-44 who held a bachelor's degree or higher were four times as likely to be unemployed as similarly educated Canadian-born women: 17% versus 4%. Indeed, the only Canadian-born women who were more likely to be unemployed than these highly-educated recent immigrant women were those who had less than a Grade 9 education. (Table 9.11)

Educated immigrant women may face a number of barriers in securing employment. Some employers may hesitate to accept a job applicant with a foreign degree and little or no Canadian work experience. As well, some women may have difficulty getting professional certification in Canada if they completed their education abroad.

Immigrant women relatively likely to be employed full-time

Interestingly, immigrant women who are part of the paid workforce are slightly more likely to be employed on a full-time basis than are Canadian-born women. More than 75% of immigrant women aged 25-44 who were employed in 1995 were working mainly full-time, as were 73% of Canadian-born women.[11] Even recent immigrant women were most likely to be employed full-time during this period (74%). (Table 9.12)

Compared with men, however, immigrant women are much less likely to have secured full-time employment. In 1995, 76% of immigrant women aged 25-44 were employed mainly full-time, compared with 91% of immigrant men.

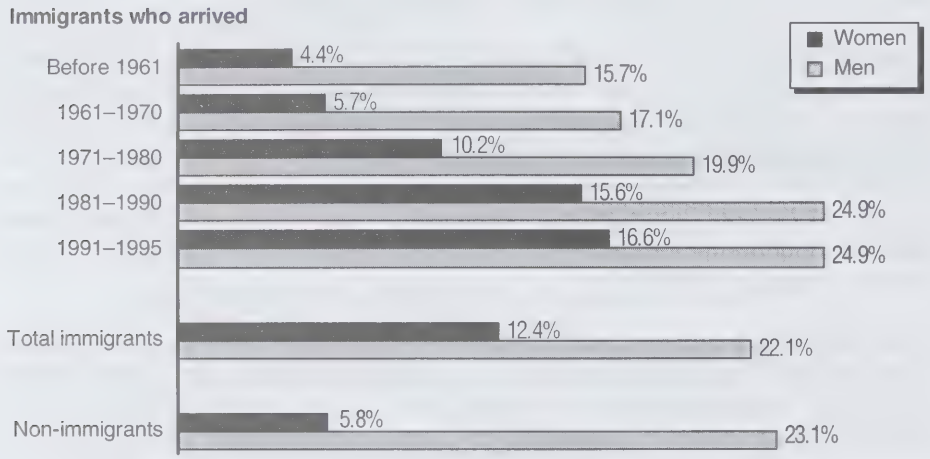
Concentrated in administrative, clerical, sales and service jobs

Female immigrants tend to be concentrated in occupations traditionally held by women in Canada. Among those aged 25-44 who participated in the paid workforce in 1995 or 1996, 56% of immigrants, and 58% of recent immigrants, worked in administrative, clerical, sales, or service jobs.[11] These figures were about the same as for Canadian-born women (58%). In contrast, men were only about half as likely as women to work in clerical, sales, or service jobs: in 1995-96, 28% of all immigrant men, 32% of recent immigrant men, and 24% of Canadian-born men aged 25-44 worked in such occupations. (Table 9.13)

The major difference between immigrant women and Canadian-born women when it comes to occupation is the proportion of women who are manual workers.[13] Of those aged 25-44 who were employed in 1995-96, 12% of all immigrant women, and 17% of recent immigrant women, were manual workers, compared with just 6% of Canadian-born females. This finding could signify that manual jobs may be easier for new immigrants to obtain, or it could indicate a cultural difference in attitudes about the acceptability of these jobs for women. Interestingly, among men, who are more likely to be manual labourers than women, there is little difference in the proportion of immigrants and Canadian-born working in these occupations: 22% of immigrant men, 25% of recent immigrant men, and 23% of Canadian-born men aged 25-44 were working in manual occupations in 1995-96. (Chart 9.10)

 Chart 9.10

Proportion of the population aged 25-44 who were employed at some time in 1995 or 1996 and who were employed as manual workers, by immigrant status and period of immigration[1]



[1] *Excludes immigrants who arrived in Canada in 1996.*
Source: *Statistics Canada, 1996 Census of Canada.*

While immigrant women are more likely than Canadian-born women to be employed as manual workers, they are less likely to occupy professional positions. This is particularly true of recent immigrants: in 1995-96, 13% of recent immigrant women aged 25-44 were employed in professional occupations, compared with 19% of Canadian-born women. Furthermore, although recent immigrant women were slightly less likely to be professionals than were recent immigrant men, 13% versus 16%, Canadian-born women were actually more likely to work in such occupations compared with their male counterparts, 19% versus 13%. (Table 9.13)

As well, recent immigrant women are not quite as likely as other women in Canada to be managers. Of those aged 25-44 who were employed in 1995-96, 5% of recent immigrant women were in management, while 7% of Canadian-born women filled such positions. Both recent immigrant women and Canadian-born women were less likely to hold management occupations than were their male counterparts: 9% of recent immigrant men and 11% of Canadian-born men aged 25-44 were managers in 1995-96.

Some recent immigrant women appear over-qualified for their occupations

Because employment can often be difficult to find, recent immigrants may initially accept jobs in occupations for which they are overqualified, hoping to later find work more closely matching their credentials. In fact, 1996 Census data show that on the basis of their education some immigrant women appear overqualified for the type of occupations they hold.

To illustrate, among women aged 25-44 who were employed in 1995 or 1996 and who held a bachelor's degree or higher, recent immigrant women were six times more likely to be manual workers compared with their Canadian-born counterparts.[11] Furthermore, recent immigrant women with university degrees were twice as likely as the Canadian-born to be employed as administrative, clerical, sales or service workers: 48% versus 24%. (Table 9.14)

On the other hand, highly-educated recent immigrant women are only about half as likely as Canadian-born women to be employed as professionals, and are also less likely to be working as managers. Among those aged 25-44 with university degrees who were employed in 1995-96, about three in 10 recent immigrant women were professionals, compared with close to six in 10 Canadian-born women. Furthermore, 6% of recent immigrant women were working in management, whereas 10% of Canadian-born women were managers. In at least some situations, recent immigrant women who aspired to be professionals or managers may have had difficulty finding such work because their educational qualifications or overseas work experience may not have been recognised by employers in Canada.

It is worth mentioning that university-educated recent immigrant men and Canadian-born men are much more closely matched across occupations than are similarly educated recent immigrant women and Canadian-born women. For example, the difference between the proportion of recent immigrant men and Canadian-born men aged 25-44 with university degrees who were working in administrative, clerical, sales or service occupations was just seven percentage points, while the difference between the proportion of educated recent immigrant women and Canadian-born women was more than three times greater than this, at 24 percentage points. In a similar way, recent immigrant men with university degrees were only about eight percentage points less likely than Canadian-born men to be professionals, while recent immigrant women with degrees were 25 percentage points less likely to work in such occupations compared with Canadian-born women.

Immigrant women, including those with degrees, earn less

Immigrant women generally earn less at their jobs than other women in Canada. Immigrant women aged 25-44 earned an average of $28,700 for full-year, full-time work in 1995, while Canadian-born women in the same age group earned about $30,700.[11] Recent immigrant women had particularly low earnings, averaging only $21,900 for full-year, full-time employment in 1995. (Chart 9.11)

Like Canadian-born women, however, immigrant women earn considerably less than their male counterparts. In 1995, immigrant women aged 25-44 who were employed on a full-time, full-year basis earned just 75% of what immigrant men earned: $28,700 versus $38,200. The disparity between recent immigrant women and men was proportionately the same, with recent immigrant women earning $21,900 and men earning $29,200, on average, for full-year, full-time employment.

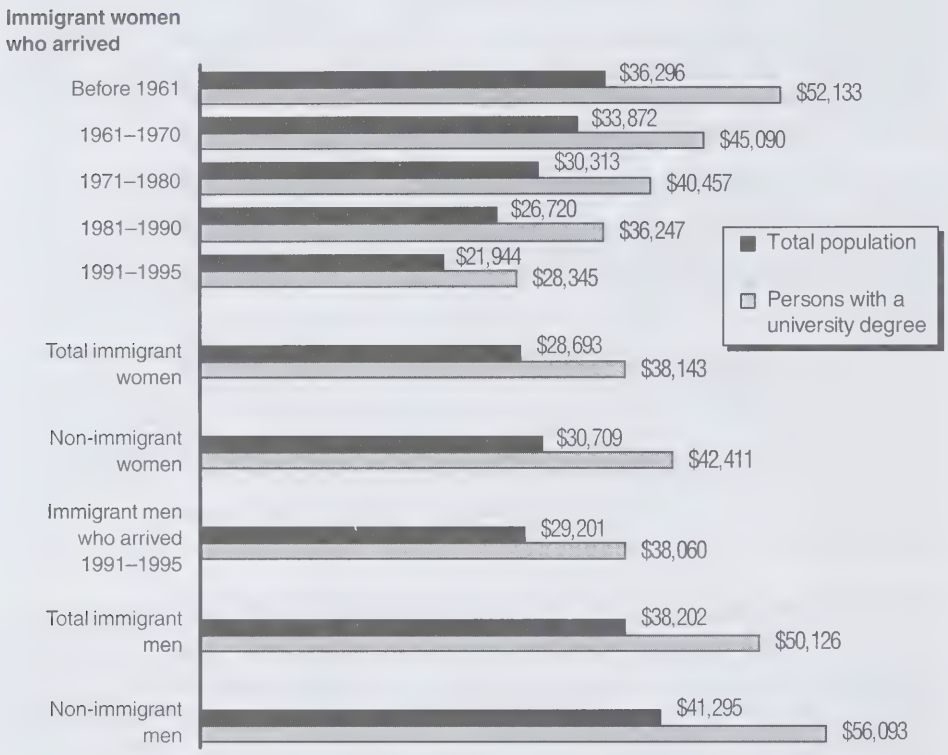
Interestingly, gaps in employment earnings between immigrant women and Canadian-born women and between immigrant women and their male counterparts do not decrease with higher levels of education. In fact, recent immigrant women aged 25-44 who had a university degree and who were employed full-time, full-year in 1995 earned about $14,000 less than Canadian-born women that year: $28,300 versus $42,400. These recent immigrant women also earned nearly $10,000 less than their male counterparts ($28,300 versus $38,000).

Immigrant women have lower average total incomes

Overall, immigrant women have average total incomes which are only slightly lower than those of Canadian-born women. In 1995, average incomes from all sources, including employment earnings, investment income, and transfer payments, were $19,000 for immigrant females aged 15 and over, compared with $19,300 for their Canadian-born counterparts.[11] (Table 9.15)

 Chart 9.11

Average employment income of the population aged 25-44 who were employed full-time, full-year in 1995, by immigrant status and period of immigration[1]



[1] *Excludes immigrants who arrived in Canada in 1996.*
Source: *Statistics Canada, 1996 Census of Canada.*

Recent immigrant women have particularly low incomes. Women aged 15 and over who came to Canada between 1991 and 1995 reported an average income of only $12,000 in 1995, just 62% the figure for Canadian-born women that year.

As among the Canadian-born, immigrant women have considerably lower incomes than immigrant men. In fact, in 1995, the average income of female immigrants aged 15 and over was just 62% than that of their male counterparts. Among recent immigrants, women received about 66% of what men received in income in 1995.

Immigrant women are slightly more dependent on transfer payments

Immigrant women generally receive a slightly larger proportion of their total income from government transfer payments, including family allowances, employment insurance, and other types of social assistance, than their Canadian-born counterparts. In 1995, transfer payments accounted for 20% of the total income of female immigrants aged 15 and over, versus 18% of the income of females born in Canada.[11] (Table 9.16)

Some immigrant women receive a greater share of their income from government transfer payments than do others. Immigrant women aged 65 and over, for example, depend on transfer payments for the largest share of their income. As with Canadian-born women, female immigrant seniors depended upon transfer payments for about

60% of their income in 1995. This is not surprising since many senior women in this age group receive a large share of their income through Old Age Security pensions, Guaranteed Income Supplements, and Canada or Quebec Pension Plan benefits.

Recent immigrant women are also relatively likely to receive government assistance. In 1996, government transfer payments accounted for 17% of the total income of recent immigrant women aged 25-44, compared with between 6% and 12% of the income of immigrant women aged 25-44 who had arrived in Canada in earlier periods, and 10% of the income of Canadian-born women in this age group. Recent immigrant women may receive a large share of their income in the form of transfer payments because they may receive settlement assistance upon initially arriving in Canada. As well, these women are more likely to be attending school than are other women and are also more likely to be unemployed, both of which could affect the composition of their total income.

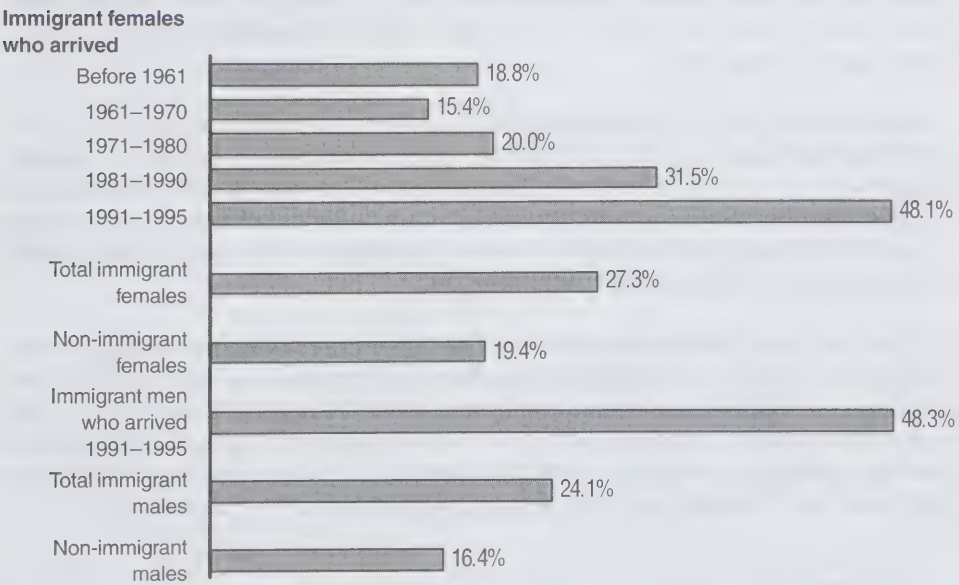
As with Canadian-born women, immigrant women receive a larger share of their income from government transfer payments than do men. In 1995, transfer payments accounted for 20% of the total income of immigrant women aged 15 and over, versus 13% of the income of immigrant men. These differences are affected to some extent by the fact that many women are mothers with dependent children and hence receive federal Child Tax benefits.

Recent immigrant women likely to live in low-income situations

Nearly three in 10 immigrant women living in Canada have incomes which fall below Statistics Canada's Low Income Cut-offs.[14] In 1995, 27% of all immigrant women lived with low incomes; this was much higher than the 19% of Canadian-born women living in low-income situations that year. (Chart 9.12)

Chart 9.12

Proportion of the population in private households living in low-income situations, by immigrant status and period of immigration, 1995[1]

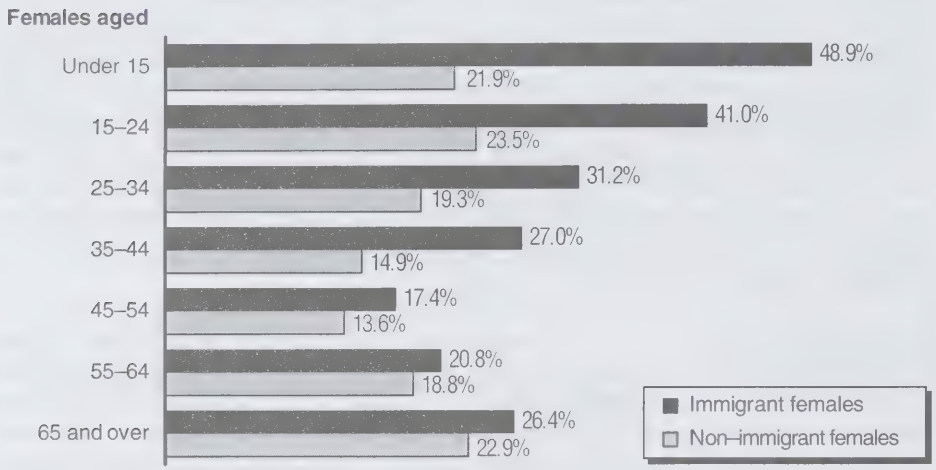


[1] *Excludes immigrants who arrived in Canada in 1996.*

Source: *Statistics Canada, 1996 Census of Canada.*

 Chart 9.13

Proportion of the immigrant and non-immigrant female populations in private households living in low-income situations, by age, 1995[1]



[1] *Excludes immigrants who arrived in Canada in 1996.*
Source: *Statistics Canada, 1996 Census of Canada.*

Looking at period of immigration, women who immigrated to Canada more recently are the most likely to be living with low incomes. Indeed, nearly half (48%) of women who immigrated here between 1991 and 1996 were living in low-income situations in 1996, compared with about 32% of women who immigrated between 1981 and 1990, and fewer than 20% of women who arrived in Canada before 1981 or who were born in Canada.

Like Canadian-born women, immigrant women are somewhat more likely to be living in low-income situations than their male counterparts. In 1995, 27% of immigrant women were living with low incomes, compared with 24% of immigrant men. Among recent immigrants, however, women (48%) and men (48%) were equally as likely to be living in low-income situations.

The fact that recent immigrant women and men are especially likely to be living with lower incomes is again related to the fact that newcomers tend to go through a temporary adjustment period while establishing themselves in Canadian society. Based on the experiences of earlier immigrants, however, it might be expected that in time this group of recent immigrants will improve their position, and that in future years a much smaller proportion will be living in low-income situations.

Female immigrant children are particularly likely to live in a low-income situation; indeed, they are more than twice as likely as Canadian-born females to be living in low-income situations. In 1995, 49% of female immigrants under the age of 15 were living in low-income households, compared with 22% of non-immigrant females. Young immigrant women aged 15-24 were also much more likely to be living in low income situations than were their non-immigrant counterparts: 41% versus 24%. (Chart 9.13)

Jennifer Chard, Jane Badets and Linda Howatson-Leo are senior analysts with the Immigration Statistics Section of the Housing, Family and Social Statistics Division.

[1] *Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Canada. In fact, unless stated otherwise, the data in this chapter are from the Census of Canada.*

[2] *Source: Citizenship and Immigration Canada, Annual Report to Parliament, 1994.*

[3] *For more information on this topic, see "Canada's Refugee Flows: Gender Inequality", by Monica Boyd in* Canadian Social Trends*, Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 11-008-XPE, Spring 1994.*

[4] *The* Employment Equity Act *defines visible minorities as* "persons, other than Aboriginal peoples, who are non-Caucasian in race or non-white in colour". *The visible minority population includes the following groups: Chinese, South Asian, Black, Arab/West Asian, Filipino, Southeast Asian, Latin American, Japanese, Korean and Pacific Islander. For more information on visible minority women, see Chapter 10.*

[5] *Reflecting immigrant settlement patterns, Toronto, Vancouver and Montréal are also home to the largest visible minority populations in Canada. For more information, see Chapter 10, as well as the article "Visible minorities in Toronto, Vancouver and Montréal", by Jennifer Chard and Viviane Renaud in* Canadian Social Trends*, Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 11-008-XPE, Autumn 1999.*

[6] *Immigrants who wish to become a Canadian citizen must apply for it. This process of obtaining citizenship is called naturalization. In order to apply for Canadian citizenship, immigrants must be: 18 years of age; a legal permanent resident in Canada; have lived in Canada for three years out of the four years right before the day of application; be able to communicate in English or French; and, have knowledge of Canada, including the rights and responsibilities of citizenship. For more information, contact Citizenship and Immigration Canada or visit http://www.cic.gc.ca.*

[7] *Includes a small number of immigrants who were born in Canada, for example, children of foreign diplomats and Canadians by birth, who at some point gave up their Canadian citizenship.*

[8] *The census question on knowledge of official languages asks respondents whether they are able to conduct a conversation in either or both English and French. The information collected is thus based on respondents' self-assessments and may overstate or understate the actual abilities of these individuals in either or both languages.*

[9] *Refers to highest level of educational attainment at the time of the 1996 Census. It is not known whether immigrant women obtained their education before or after their arrival in Canada.*

[10] *This figure includes females who may still be attending university.*

[11] *Women who arrived in Canada in 1996 have been excluded from the total immigrant and recent immigrant populations in the analysis of labour force participation, unemployment, occupational distribution, employment income, and total income statistics.*

[12] *For more information, see "Recent immigrants in the workforce", by Jane Badets and Linda Howatson-Leo in* Canadian Social Trends*, Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 11-008-XPE, Spring 1999.*

[13] *Manual workers include, for example, sewing machine operators, farm workers, photographic and film processors, delivery or taxi drivers, as well as persons working in various types of assembly, fabrication, and product inspecting and testing.*

[14] *See Chapter 6 for a definition of the Low Income Cut-offs. In this situation, "income" refers to the income of the woman's economic family or, if the woman lives alone, to her personal income.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 9.1

Immigrants arriving in Canada, by immigrant class, 1989-1998 and 1998

	1989-1998[1]				1998[1]			
	Female		Male		Female		Male	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Immigrant class								
Family class								
Immediate family	274,748	24.4	191,159	17.7	22,772	25.5	13,906	16.4
Parents and grandparents	174,821	15.4	137,729	12.8	8,217	9.2	5,982	7.0
Total family class	449,569	39.8	328,888	30.5	30,989	34.7	19,888	23.4
Economic class[2]								
Principal applicants in economic class	124,870	11.1	268,481	24.9	10,493	11.8	29,229	34.4
Dependants of principal applicants in economic class	354,010	31.4	234,538	21.8	33,732	37.8	21,518	25.3
Refugees[3]	125,649	11.1	167,696	15.6	10,431	11.7	12,253	14.4
Other[4]	41,115	3.6	25,707	2.4	3,452	3.9	1,963	2.3
Backlog and not stated	33,036	2.9	52,016	4.8	95	0.1	120	0.1
Total	**1,128,249**	**100.0**	**1,077,326**	**100.0**	**89,192**	**100.0**	**84,971**	**100.0**

[1] *In 1998, gender was unknown for 4 immigrants. Between 1989 and 1998, gender was unknown for 234 immigrants.*
[2] *Includes skilled workers and business people, and their dependents.*
[3] *Includes government-assisted refugees, privately-sponsored refugees, refugees landed in Canada (asylum), and dependents abroad.*
[4] *Includes live-in caregivers and their dependents, deferred removal order and post-determination refugees, retirees, and provincial/territorial nominees.*
Source: *Citizenship and Immigration Canada.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 9.2

Female population, by immigrant status and period of immigration, 1996

	Total population	As a % of all people in group	As a % of all females in Canada	As a % of all immigrant females
Immigrant females who arrived				
Before 1961	541,195	51.3	3.7	21.1
1961-1970	401,525	50.9	2.8	15.6
1971-1980	515,065	51.7	3.6	20.1
1981-1990	562,335	51.4	3.9	21.9
1991-1996[1]	545,560	52.5	3.8	21.3
Total immigrant females	**2,565,675**	**51.6**	**17.7**	**100.0**
Non-permanent residents	83,860	50.3	0.6	--
Non-immigrants	11,831,710	50.6	81.7	--
Total	**14,481,245**	**50.8**	**100.0**	**--**

[1] *Includes only the first four months of 1996.*
Source: *Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.*

 Table 9.3

Region of birth of female immigrants, by period of immigration, 1996

	Period of arrival					
	1991-1996[1]	1981-1990	1971-1980	1961-1970	Before 1961	Total
			%			
Region of birth						
United States	3.0	4.7	8.1	6.7	5.2	5.4
Central and South America	7.4	9.7	6.9	2.4	0.6	5.6
Caribbean and Bermuda	5.8	7.4	10.6	6.3	0.8	6.2
Europe						
United Kingdom	2.4	6.0	13.1	21.7	27.9	13.7
Other Northern and Western Europe	3.0	4.4	5.8	11.4	26.3	10.1
Eastern Europe	8.6	9.7	3.4	5.3	16.2	8.9
Southern Europe	4.8	4.9	12.9	29.8	19.5	13.4
Total Europe	18.8	25.1	35.3	68.3	89.9	46.2
Africa	6.7	5.3	5.5	3.0	0.4	4.2
Asia						
West Central Asia and the Middle East	7.0	6.2	2.7	1.6	0.4	3.7
Eastern Asia	24.5	16.3	10.7	5.1	1.6	12.1
Southeast Asia	13.0	15.7	10.9	2.2	0.2	8.8
Southern Asia	12.8	8.6	7.8	3.1	0.4	6.7
Total Asia	57.4	46.7	32.1	12.0	2.6	31.3
Oceania and other	0.9	0.9	1.4	1.1	0.3	0.9
Canada[2]	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**

[1] *Includes only the first four months of 1996.*

[2] *A small number of immigrants are born in Canada. This includes children of foreign diplomats as well as Canadians by birth who at some point gave up their Canadian citizenship.*

Source: *Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.*

 Table 9.4

Area of residence of the female population, by immigrant status and period of immigration, 1996

	Immigrants							
	Arrived 1991-1996[1]		Arrived before 1991		Total immigrants		Non-immigrants	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Census metropolitan areas								
Toronto	232,440	42.6	690,180	34.2	922,620	36.0	1,217,190	10.3
Vancouver	99,730	18.3	228,015	11.3	327,745	12.8	579,205	4.9
Montréal	68,180	12.4	228,805	11.3	296,980	11.6	1,377,405	11.6
Calgary	17,925	3.3	69,315	3.4	87,245	3.4	319,100	2.7
Edmonton	15,095	2.8	66,225	3.3	81,315	3.2	347,420	2.9
Ottawa[2]	18,390	3.4	58,390	2.9	76,780	3.0	306,065	2.6
Hamilton	9,595	1.8	65,600	3.2	75,205	2.9	239,575	2.0
Winnipeg	8,350	1.5	49,495	2.4	57,845	2.3	279,705	2.4
Kitchener	6,565	1.2	35,520	1.8	42,080	1.6	149,270	1.3
London	6,025	1.1	32,875	1.6	38,905	1.5	163,350	1.4
St. Catharines - Niagara	3,105	0.6	32,440	1.6	35,545	1.4	152,465	1.3
Victoria	3,395	0.6	27,630	1.4	31,025	1.2	124,030	1.0
Windsor	5,460	1.0	24,055	1.2	29,520	1.2	110,595	0.9
Oshawa	2,070	0.4	20,830	1.0	22,900	0.9	111,445	0.9
Halifax	2,240	0.4	9,335	0.4	11,575	0.4	158,120	1.3
Other CMAs	10,190	1.9	44,345	2.2	54,555	2.1	1,143,060	9.7
Total CMAs	**508,755**	**93.3**	**1,683,055**	**83.3**	**2,191,840**	**85.4**	**6,778,000**	**57.3**
Other urban areas	18,400	3.4	152,710	7.6	171,080	6.7	2,161,535	18.3
Total urban areas	**527,155**	**96.6**	**1,835,765**	**90.9**	**2,362,920**	**92.1**	**8,939,535**	**75.6**
Total rural areas	**18,400**	**3.4**	**184,360**	**9.1**	**202,760**	**7.9**	**2,892,175**	**24.4**
Canada	**545,560**	**100.0**	**2,020,115**	**100.0**	**2,565,675**	**100.0**	**11,831,715**	**100.0**

[1] *Includes only the first four months of 1996.*
[2] *Does not include data for Hull, Quebec.*
Source: *Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.*

Age distribution of females and males, by immigrant status and period of immigration, 1996

	People aged							
	Under 15	15-24	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-64	65 and over	Average age
	%							
Immigrant females who arrived								
Before 1961	--	--	--	6.4	17.0	22.7	53.9	65
1961-1970	--	--	10.4	16.2	32.2	24.7	16.5	52
1971-1980	--	8.0	17.8	26.8	26.0	9.9	11.5	45
1981-1990	8.4	15.1	23.6	26.3	11.4	6.0	9.1	37
1991-1996[1]	17.4	16.4	26.9	19.4	8.8	6.0	5.2	32
Total immigrant females	**5.5**	**8.4**	**16.1**	**19.2**	**18.2**	**13.2**	**19.4**	**46**
Non-immigrant females	23.0	14.0	15.5	16.4	11.7	7.8	11.5	34
Immigrant males	6.2	9.0	15.8	18.7	19.3	14.2	16.8	45
Non-immigrant males	24.8	14.9	15.6	16.6	11.8	7.5	8.8	32

[1] *Includes only the first four months of 1996.*
Source: *Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.*

Family status of women aged 15 and over, by age and immigrant status, 1996

	Women aged					
	15-64			65 and over		
	Immigrants	Recent immigrants[1]	Non-immigrants	Immigrants	Recent immigrants[1]	Non-immigrants
	%					
Living with family						
Wives	63.7	58.5	48.4	43.6	33.7	42.4
Common-law partners	3.4	2.3	10.8	0.5	0.3	0.9
Lone parents	9.3	7.6	8.4	6.3	13.2	5.8
Never-married daughters	11.0	17.2	17.6	0.1	--	0.1
Living with extended family	3.7	6.5	2.0	16.1	42.4	8.1
Total living with family	91.2	92.1	87.4	66.5	89.7	57.3
Not living with family						
Living with non-relatives only	2.8	4.4	4.1	1.4	1.8	1.8
Living alone	5.9	3.4	8.4	32.1	8.5	40.8
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**

[1] *Refers to those who arrived in Canada between 1991 and 1995 and the first four months of 1996.*
Source: *Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 9.7

Knowledge of official languages of women and men aged 15 and over, by immigrant status and period of immigration, 1996

	English only	French only	Both English and French	Neither English nor French	Total
			%		
Immigrant women who arrived					
Before 1961	85.6	2.0	8.7	3.7	100.0
1961-1970	77.9	3.1	12.3	6.7	100.0
1971-1980	76.2	3.8	12.6	7.4	100.0
1981-1990	72.8	4.6	11.3	11.3	100.0
1991-1996[1]	71.1	4.6	7.9	16.4	100.0
Total immigrant women	**76.9**	**3.6**	**10.5**	**8.9**	**100.0**
Non-immigrant women	62.6	17.0	20.3	0.1	100.0
Immigrant men who arrived 1991-1996	75.3	3.9	9.9	10.9	100.0
Total immigrant men	**79.1**	**3.1**	**12.5**	**5.3**	**100.0**
Non-immigrant men	64.2	14.3	21.4	0.1	100.0

[1] *Includes only the first four months of 1996.*
Source: *Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 9.8

School attendance of women and men aged 15 and over, by immigrant status and period of immigration, 1996

	People aged							
	15-19		20-24		25-44		45 and over	
	Total attending school[1]	Attending school full-time	Total attending school[1]	Attending school full-time	Total attending school[1]	Attending school full-time	Total attending school[1]	Attending school full-time
					%			
Immigrant women who arrived								
Before 1961	--	--	--	--	10.0	1.9	2.0	0.3
1961-1970	--	--	--	--	12.4	3.4	3.6	0.6
1971-1980	83.4	78.6	57.7	46.9	14.4	5.4	4.9	1.2
1981-1990	87.3	84.4	59.9	51.1	16.4	6.7	5.0	1.4
1991-1996[2]	87.2	84.4	52.3	39.7	25.5	12.2	9.5	3.2
Total immigrant women	**86.9**	**83.9**	**56.3**	**45.4**	**17.7**	**7.3**	**3.9**	**0.9**
Non-immigrant women	82.4	78.9	48.4	39.4	13.0	4.4	3.0	0.6
Immigrant men	86.2	83.4	56.4	46.9	15.4	7.1	3.1	0.8
Non-immigrant men	80.6	77.1	44.2	36.0	10.3	4.1	2.2	0.4

[1] *Refers to school attendance on either a full- or part-time basis.*
[2] *Includes only the first four months of 1996.*
Source: *Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.*

Highest level of education of women and men aged 25-44, by immigrant status and period of immigration, 1996

			At least some post-secondary					
	Less than grade 9	Grades 9-13	Total post-secondary	Non-university only	University without degree	University with bachelor's or first professional degree	University with degree higher than bachelor's degree	Total with at least some university
					%			
Immigrant women who arrived								
Before 1961	2.1	34.6	63.3	32.2	11.3	12.7	7.0	31.0
1961-1970	4.6	30.3	65.1	32.8	11.1	15.3	5.9	32.4
1971-1980	7.4	26.8	65.7	33.2	12.6	15.2	4.7	32.6
1981-1990	8.7	27.4	63.9	30.9	12.4	14.3	6.2	32.9
1991-1996[1]	6.8	27.6	65.6	26.1	13.2	17.4	8.8	39.4
Total immigrant women	**7.1**	**27.9**	**64.9**	**30.4**	**12.4**	**15.4**	**6.5**	**34.5**
Non-immigrant women	3.0	33.4	63.7	35.6	10.6	13.3	4.2	28.1
Immigrant men	6.0	25.9	68.2	30.0	13.0	16.1	9.1	38.2
Non-immigrant men	3.9	33.4	62.7	36.4	9.6	12.4	4.2	26.2

[1] *Includes only the first four months of 1996.*
Source: *Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.*

Unemployment rates of women and men aged 25-44, by knowledge of official languages, immigrant status, and period of immigration,[1] 1996

	Knowledge of official languages				
	English only	French only	Both English and French	Total English and/or French	Neither English nor French
			%		
Immigrant women who arrived					
Before 1961	5.5	8.3	6.6	5.7	--
1961-1970	6.7	12.4	7.3	6.9	11.1
1971-1980	8.2	21.3	9.0	8.7	15.7
1981-1990	11.6	27.5	12.9	12.4	18.7
1991-1995	17.7	34.1	19.2	18.6	25.6
Total immigrant women	**11.1**	**27.3**	**11.3**	**11.6**	**21.6**
Non-immigrant women	8.3	10.8	7.3	8.5	20.9
Immigrant men	8.8	23.8	11.7	9.6	15.5
Non-immigrant men	8.6	13.4	8.2	9.1	22.4

[1] *Excludes immigrants who arrived in Canada in 1996.*
Source: *Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 9.11

Unemployment rates of women and men aged 25-44, by highest level of education, immigrant status, and period of immigration,[1] 1996

	Highest level of education					
	Less than grade 9	Grades 9-13	At least some post-secondary	Non-university only	University without degree	University with degree
	%					
Immigrant women who arrived						
Before 1961	20.0	6.1	5.2	6.6	4.4	3.3
1961-1970	12.9	8.1	6.1	7.3	6.3	4.3
1971-1980	12.5	10.5	7.8	9.6	7.5	5.2
1981-1990	19.1	15.1	11.1	13.1	11.3	8.1
1991-1995	25.6	22.1	17.5	17.7	18.8	16.7
Total immigrant women	**18.1**	**13.8**	**10.8**	**11.9**	**11.2**	**9.1**
Non-immigrant women	24.7	10.8	7.0	8.6	6.7	4.4
Immigrant men	14.1	11.7	8.8	9.1	10.1	7.7
Non-immigrant men	25.0	12.0	7.0	8.6	6.8	3.6

[1] *Excludes immigrants who arrived in Canada in 1996.*
Source: *Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 9.12

Full- or part-time status of women and men aged 25-44 who were employed at some time in 1995, by immigrant status and period of immigration,[1] 1996

	Mainly full-time		Mainly part-time	
	Number	As a % of total employed	Number	As a % of total employed
Immigrant women who arrived				
Before 1961	21,580	73.8	7,670	26.2
1961-1970	65,965	75.7	21,215	24.3
1971-1980	142,535	77.3	41,920	22.7
1981-1990	155,155	76.4	47,930	23.6
1991-1995	106,380	73.8	37,665	26.1
Total immigrant women	**491,615**	**75.9**	**156,400**	**24.1**
Non-immigrant women	2,209,885	72.9	822,805	27.1
Immigrant men	649,260	91.0	64,465	9.0
Non-immigrant men	3,162,830	92.7	248,830	7.3

[1] *Excludes immigrants who arrived in Canada in 1996.*
Source: *Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.*

Occupational distribution of women and men aged 25-44 who worked in 1995 or 1996, by immigrant status, 1996

	Women			Men		
	Immigrants[1]	Recent immigrants[1]	Non-immigrants	Immigrants[1]	Recent immigrants[1]	Non-immigrants
	%					
Occupation						
Manager						
Senior manager, including legislator	0.3	0.2	0.4	1.1	0.8	1.1
Middle and other management	6.0	4.3	6.3	10.0	7.7	10.0
Total management	6.4	4.6	6.8	11.1	8.5	11.1
Professional	15.7	12.7	18.6	15.6	16.2	12.8
Semi-professional and technician	5.9	5.2	7.3	6.4	5.3	6.6
Supervisor	1.4	0.9	1.6	1.2	1.0	1.2
Supervisor – crafts and trades	0.8	0.7	1.1	3.3	2.2	5.3
Administrative and clerical						
Administrative and senior clerical	8.5	6.2	11.4	1.3	1.0	1.4
Clerical	17.2	13.5	18.8	6.7	7.0	5.9
Total administrative and clerical	25.7	19.7	30.1	8.0	8.0	7.4
Sales and service						
Skilled sales and service	4.3	4.0	4.4	6.4	7.1	4.7
Intermediate sales and service	15.6	19.8	15.4	6.6	6.5	7.2
Other sales and service	10.7	14.9	7.9	7.1	10.5	5.1
Total sales and service	30.6	38.7	27.8	20.1	24.1	16.9
Skilled crafts and trades	1.1	1.1	0.8	12.1	9.8	15.6
Manual						
Semi-skilled manual	9.2	11.4	4.3	17.4	19.1	17.7
Other manual	3.3	5.2	1.6	4.7	5.8	5.4
Total manual	12.4	16.6	5.8	22.1	24.9	23.1
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**

[1] *Excludes immigrants who arrived in Canada in 1996. Recent immigrants include those who arrived between 1991 and 1995.*

Source: *Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.*

 Table 9.14

Occupational distribution of women and men aged 25-44 who had a bachelor's degree or higher and who worked in 1995 or 1996, by immigrant status, 1996

	Women			Men		
	Immigrants[1]	Recent immigrants[1]	Non-immigrants	Immigrants[1]	Recent immigrants[1]	Non-immigrants
	%					
Occupation						
Manager						
Senior manager, including legislator	0.7	0.4	0.9	2.0	1.4	2.5
Middle and other management	7.6	5.6	8.8	13.0	9.3	16.3
Total management	8.3	6.0	9.7	15.0	10.6	18.8
Professional	41.4	30.7	55.4	45.6	41.3	49.4
Semi-professional and technician	8.3	8.4	8.1	7.0	7.2	6.2
Supervisor	1.1	0.9	1.1	1.0	1.1	1.0
Supervisor – crafts and trades	0.4	0.4	0.5	1.3	1.1	1.7
Administrative and clerical						
Administrative and senior clerical	7.0	6.8	5.6	2.0	8.8	7.5
Clerical	13.3	14.0	8.7	6.4	1.5	2.8
Total administrative and clerical	20.3	20.8	14.3	8.4	7.2	4.8
Sales and service						
Skilled sales and service	2.4	2.6	1.8	3.8	3.8	4.0
Intermediate sales and service	9.7	15.2	6.5	5.4	5.8	5.5
Other sales and service	4.6	9.1	1.5	3.7	6.8	1.6
Total sales and service	16.8	26.9	9.8	12.9	16.4	11.2
Skilled crafts and trades	0.3	0.4	0.2	2.2	2.9	1.3
Manual						
Semi-skilled manual	2.2	3.6	0.6	5.4	8.4	2.1
Other manual	0.9	1.9	0.2	1.2	2.0	0.8
Total manual	3.1	5.4	0.8	6.6	10.4	2.9
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**

[1] *Excludes immigrants who arrived in Canada in 1996. Recent immigrants include those who arrived between 1991 and 1995.*

Source: *Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 9.15

Average total income[1] of women and men aged 15 and over, by age and immigrant status, 1995

	Women			Men		
	Immigrants[2]	Recent immigrants[2]	Non-immigrants	Immigrants[2]	Recent immigrants[2]	Non-immigrants
			$			
People aged						
15-24	7,345	6,319	7,580	8,652	7,734	9,385
25-34	18,231	13,657	20,651	24,779	19,094	29,321
35-44	22,321	14,745	24,650	34,694	22,808	39,963
45-54	24,554	13,145	24,877	41,512	22,169	43,209
55-64	18,174	8,281	18,068	35,033	14,974	35,869
65 and over	15,897	7,862	17,175	24,803	10,070	27,035
Total 15 and over	**19,010**	**11,970**	**19,309**	**30,871**	**18,048**	**31,250**

1 *Refers to income from all sources, including employment earnings, investment income, and government transfer payments.*

2 *Excludes immigrants who arrived in Canada in 1996. Recent immigrants include those who arrived between 1991 and 1995.*

Source: *Statistics Canada, 1996 Census of Canada.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 9.16

Government transfer payments as a proportion of total income of women and men aged 15 and over, by age and immigrant status,[1] 1995

	People aged				
	15-24	25-44	45-64	65 and over	Total 15 and over
			%		
Immigrant women who arrived					
Before 1961	--	5.9	11.0	57.8	33.5
1961-1970	--	7.5	8.5	62.1	15.0
1971-1980	11.3	9.0	7.9	71.4	13.9
1981-1990	15.8	12.4	11.6	65.1	16.2
1991-1995	18.0	16.6	17.3	42.1	18.0
Total immigrant women	**15.0**	**10.9**	**9.7**	**60.0**	**20.0**
Non-immigrant women	15.0	10.0	10.6	58.7	17.6
Immigrant men	10.8	7.9	6.5	43.6	12.7
Non-immigrant men	10.7	7.1	7.0	43.4	11.1

1 *Excludes immigrants who arrived in Canada in 1996.*

Source: *Statistics Canada, 1996 Census of Canada.*

CHAPTER 10

Women in a Visible Minority

by Jennifer Chard

This chapter provides information on women in a visible minority as defined for employment equity purposes. The Employment Equity Act *defines visible minorities as "persons, other than Aboriginal peoples, who are non-Caucasian in race or non-white in colour." The visible minority population includes the following groups: Chinese, South Asian, Black, Arab/West Asian, Filipino, Southeast Asian, Latin American, Japanese, Korean, and Pacific Islander.*

Data provided in this chapter have been taken from the 1996 Census of Canada and earlier censuses. These data have not been adjusted to account for differences in age, period of immigration, or other characteristics of visible minority and other women in Canada. As a result, some caution should be exercised in making conclusions based on comparisons between groups.

Canada's growing minority

Visible minority women make up a diverse and growing population in Canada. These women share many experiences with other women in this country, but they may also have very different characteristics from non-visible minority females. Some visible minority women may be doubly disadvantaged, encountering barriers not only because of their gender but also because of their race or colour.

The number of visible minority females in Canada has doubled in the past 10 years, largely because of increasing immigration to Canada from countries outside Europe.[1] In 1996, over 1.6 million women belonged to a visible minority group, up from 1.3 million in 1991 and 800,000 in 1986. As a result, visible minority women account for an increasing share of all females living in Canada. In 1996, 11% of all women living in Canada belonged to a visible minority group, compared with 9% in 1991 and 6% in 1986.[2]

As with the overall population, women make up slightly more than half of the total visible minority population in Canada. In 1996, 51% of all persons in a visible minority were female. (Table 10.1)

From many different backgrounds

Visible minority women come from many different cultural backgrounds. In 1996, about two-thirds of female visible minorities living in Canada were either Chinese (27%), South Asian (20%), or Black (18%). At the same time, 8% were Filipina, 7% were Arab or West Asian, 6% were Latin American, 5% were Southeast Asian, 2% were Japanese, 2% were Korean, and 2% belonged to another visible minority group. In addition, 2% of visible minority females belonged to more than one visible minority group. (Table 10.1)

In some visible minority groups, women make up a relatively large share of the population. For example, as of 1996, 58% of Filipinos and 53% of Japanese were female, whereas only 49% of South Asians and just 45% of Arabs or West Asians were women.

Many are recent immigrants

Most visible minority women living in Canada are immigrants.[3] In fact, 69% of visible minority females living in Canada in 1996 were immigrants to this country, while 28% were born in Canada.[4] (Table 10.2)

Indeed, a large share of visible minority females are recent arrivals in Canada. Nearly half of all visible minority women living in Canada in 1996 had arrived here between 1981 and the first four months of 1996: 25% arrived between 1991 and 1996, while 23% came between 1981 and 1990 period. In contrast, only 22% of visible minority women had arrived in this country before 1981.

Females in certain visible minority groups are particularly likely to be recent immigrants to Canada. According to the 1996 Census, about three in 10 Arab or West Asian (32%), Filipina (31%), Chinese (30%), and Latin American (28%) women living in Canada had arrived here between 1991 and 1996, while South Asian (25%), Korean (24%), and Southeast Asian (21%) females were somewhat less likely to have arrived in this period. In contrast, only 16% of Black women and just 7% of Japanese women came to Canada between 1991 and 1996.

Although most visible minority females are immigrants, many were born in Canada. According to the 1996 Census, six in 10 Japanese women and four in 10 Black women living in Canada were born here. As well, large numbers of Chinese and South Asian females were born in this country. In 1996, just over 100,000 Chinese women, or 23% of all Chinese females, and 93,500 South Asian women, or 28% of the total, were Canadian-born.

Visible minority women who were born in Canada may have quite different characteristics from visible minority women who are immigrants to this country. As well, those who are newer immigrants may be different in many ways from established immigrants. Visible minority women who were born in Canada and visible minority women who have immigrated here in different periods may be diverse in terms of their cultural backgrounds, ages, regions of residence, language abilities, educational qualifications, employment situations, and income. It is thus important to recognise that both a woman's visible minority status and the length of time she has lived in Canada may have an influence on her lifestyle and her experiences in the labour market.

A highly concentrated population

As reflects the settlement pattern of immigrants to Canada, visible minority women tend to live in one of Canada's four largest provinces. In 1996, 95% of all female visible minorities lived in Ontario (53%), British Columbia (21%), Quebec (13%), or Alberta (8%), while fewer than 5% lived in the rest of the country combined.[2]

Almost all visible minority women live in highly populated urban areas. In fact, more than nine in 10 visible minority females resided in census metropolitan areas (CMAs) in 1996, compared with just under six in 10 non-visible minority females. That year, 73% of visible minority women lived in one of Canada's three largest CMAs: 42% were in Toronto, 18% were in Vancouver, and 12% lived in Montréal.[5] (Table 10.3)

Women in different visible minority groups tend to concentrate in different CMAs. For example, although nearly half of female South Asians (49%) and Blacks (49%) lived in Toronto in 1996, just 27% of female Southeast Asians and 24% of female Japanese lived in that CMA. Vancouver was home to one-third of Japanese (33%) and Chinese (33%) women, but was the place of residence of only 8% of both Arab or West Asian and Latin American women and just 3% of Black women. Conversely, large shares of female Arabs and West Asians (30%) and Latin Americans (26%) lived in Montréal, while this CMA was less often the place of residence of Korean (5%), Chinese (5%), and Japanese (4%) women. (Table 10.4).

Although visible minority women as a group made up 11% of the total population of Canada in 1996, these females comprised 32% of all women living in Toronto and Vancouver that year. Visible minority women also accounted for relatively high proportions of females living in Calgary (16%), Ottawa (14%), Edmonton (14%), Montréal (12%), and Winnipeg (11%). (Table 10.3)

A relatively young population

Visible minority women are younger, on average, than other women in Canada. In 1996, 39% of females in a visible minority were under age 25, compared with 32% of non-visible minority females. As well, 36% of visible minority women were aged 25-44, versus 32% of other women. (Table 10.5)

In contrast, female visible minorities are less likely to belong to older age groups. In 1996, 18% of visible minority women were aged 45-64, compared with 22% of other women. Furthermore, visible minority women were only half as likely as other women to be aged 65 and over: 7% versus 14%.

Black and Southeast Asian females tend to be younger than other visible minority women. About three in 10 Black (28%) and Southeast Asian (28%) females were under the age of 15 in 1996, compared with fewer than two in 10 Chinese (19%), Filipina (18%), Korean (17%), and Japanese (16%) females.

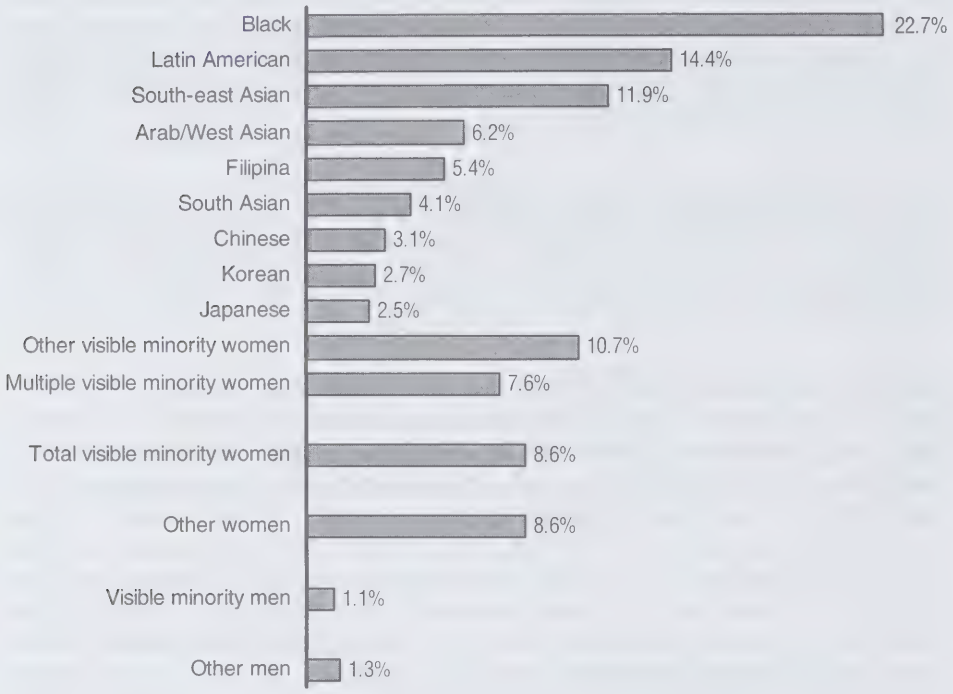
On the other hand, Japanese and Chinese women are more likely to be seniors than are women in other visible minority groups. In 1996, 12% of Japanese women and 9% of Chinese women were aged 65 and over, whereas just 5% of Black women and 4% of both Latin American and Southeast Asian women were seniors.

Family status varies by visible minority group

As with other segments of the population, the large majority of visible minority women live with their families. In 1996, 82% of female visible minorities aged 15 and over were living with their husbands, common-law spouses, unmarried children, or parents, while an additional 8% were living with other relatives. Among non-visible minority women, a slightly smaller share were living with their immediate families (80%) or were living with other relatives (3%). (Table 10.6)

Visible minority women and other women do not always live in the same kinds of families. However, among females aged 15-44, Black women (23%) were more than twice as likely to be lone parents in 1996 than were non-visible minority women (9%) and were almost eight times as likely to be lone parents compared with Japanese (3%), Korean (3%), and Chinese (3%) women. After Blacks, female Latin Americans (14%) and Southeast Asians (12%) were the next most likely to be parenting without a spouse. (Chart 10.1)

Percentage of women aged 15-44 living in private households who are lone parents, by visible minority group, 1996



Source: *Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.*

Another way in which visible minority women and other women differ in terms of family status is with respect to the share of older women who are living alone. In 1996, just 16% of visible minority women aged 65 and over were living alone, compared with 40% of non-visible minority senior women. (Chart 10.2)

While about half of both visible minority and non-visible minority female seniors were living with their spouses, unmarried children, or parents, visible minority women were almost four times as likely to live with other relatives. In 1996, 35% of senior visible minority women, versus 9% of other senior women, were living with members of their extended family.[2]

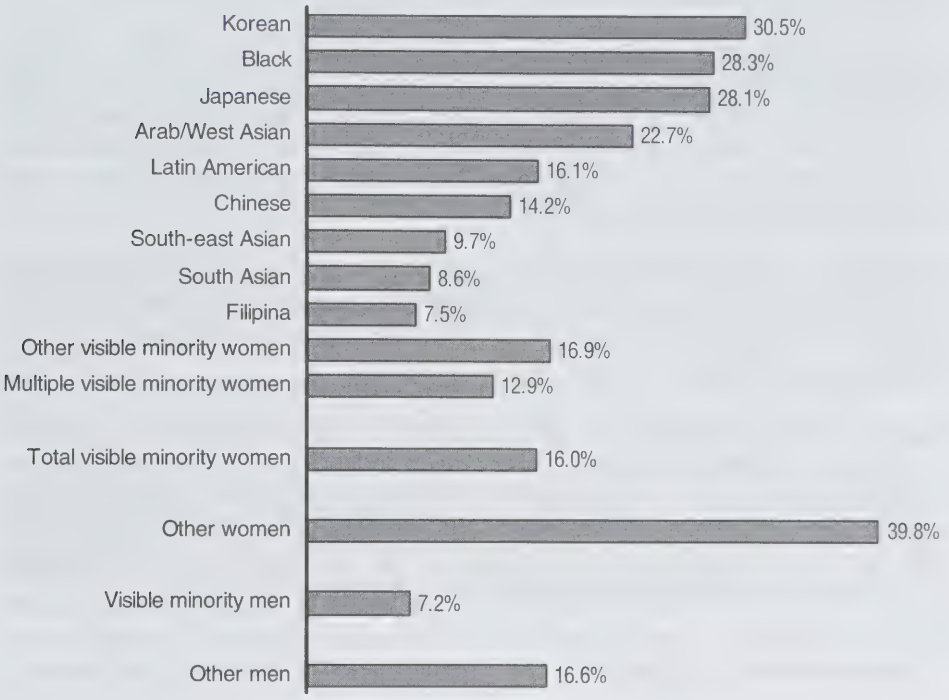
Senior Latin American and South Asian women are particularly likely to live with extended family members. In fact, as of 1996, more than four in 10 Latin American (44%) and South Asian (43%) females aged 65 and over were living with family other than their spouses, unmarried children, or parents. In contrast, just 10% of senior Japanese women lived with their extended family that year, while between 33% and 35% of senior women in each of the other visible minority groups lived in this type of family.

Most speak English or French

The vast majority of females in a visible minority speak at least one of Canada's official languages. In 1996, 88% of all visible minority women aged 15 and over reported that they could carry on a conversation in either English or French or both languages.[6] That year, 74% spoke English only, while 4% spoke French only, and 10% were bilingual. (Table 10.7)

WOMEN IN CANADA Chart 10.2

Percentage of women aged 65 and over in private households who are living alone, by visible minority group, 1996



Source: *Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.*

At the same time, however, 12% of visible minority females could not conduct a conversation in either official language. Chinese (23%), Southeast Asian (18%), and Korean (18%) women were the most likely to report that they could not speak English or French. Conversely, fewer than 2% of each of Filipinas and Black females were unable to speak one of Canada's official languages in 1996.

Visible minority women are more likely than visible minority men not to be able to speak either English or French. In 1996, 12% of female visible minorities aged 15 and over could not speak either official language, compared with just 7% of their male counterparts.

Many are attending school

A relatively large proportion of young visible minority females are attending school. Between September 1995 and May 1996, 88% of visible minority females aged 15-19 were attending school either full-time or part-time, compared with 82% of non-visible minority female teenagers. (Table 10.8)

Differences in school attendance are greatest among females in their 20s, although older visible minority women, too, are considerably more likely to be continuing their education than non-visible minority women. In 1995-96, 63% of visible minority women aged 20-24 were enrolled in classes, compared with 48% of non-visible minority women. As well, 25% of visible minority women aged 25-34 were attending school, versus 16% of non-visible minority women.

Korean, Chinese, and Japanese women between the ages of 20-24 have a particularly high rate of school attendance. Among females in this age range, 82% of Koreans, 75% of Chinese, and 72% of Japanese were registered in classes in 1995-96. In comparison, just 57% of both Filipinas and female Southeast Asians and 54% of female South Asians aged 20-24 were enrolled in an educational program that year.

Among women aged 25-34, Blacks, Koreans, Latin American, and Arab or West Asians are generally the most likely to be attending classes. In 1995-96, 34% of both Black and Korean women and 27% of both Latin American and Arab or West Asian women in this age range were in school either full-time or part-time. In contrast, this was the case for a much smaller share of South Asian (19%) and Southeast Asian (19%) women and Filipinas (16%) aged 25-34.

There was very little difference between visible minority women and men with respect to school attendance. For example, among both genders, nearly nine in 10 visible minorities aged 15-19 were in school in the 1995-96 academic year, as were more than six in 10 20- to 24-year-olds and two in 10 25- to 34-year-olds.

Patterns of school attendance for specific groups of visible minority women and men may be closely linked to patterns of immigration. Indeed, a high proportion of recent immigrant women were enrolled in school between 1995 and 1996.[1] Some immigrant woman come to Canada with the intention of completing their education here, while others may be attending courses to add to their educational qualifications after encountering difficulties in finding work in the Canadian labour market.

A well-educated population

A relatively large share of visible minority women are university educated. By 1996, 17% of visible minority women aged 15 and over had completed a university degree, compared with 12% of other women. In addition, 13% of visible minority women, versus 10% of other women, had at least some university education, but did not hold a degree.[7] (Table 10.9)

Among visible minority women, Filipinas and Koreans are particularly well-educated. In 1996, 30% of Filipinas and 26% of Korean women aged 15 and over had a university degree, as did 22% of Japanese women, 21% of Arab or West Asian women, 19% of South Asian women, and 18% of Chinese women. In contrast, fewer than 10% of Latin American, Black, and Southeast Asian women were university graduates.

Nevertheless, while a relatively small share of both Black and Latin American women had completed a university degree, a large proportion of both these groups of women had earned college diplomas or had at least some post-secondary education below the university level. As of 1996, 35% of Black females and 27% of Latin American females aged 15 and over had some type of non-university education after high school. Southeast Asian females, on the other hand, were not as likely to be attending college (17%) and, in fact, a relatively large proportion of Southeast Asian women had less than a grade nine education (24%).

Overall, visible minority women are less likely than visible minority men to be university graduates. In 1996, 17% of these women, compared with 22% of their male counterparts, had a university degree.

Often educated in science or business fields

Visible minority women with a university degree are nearly twice as likely as other female graduates to have studied either science[8] or commerce, management, and business administration. In 1996, 21% of visible minority women with university degrees had graduated from a science program, compared with 11% of other female graduates, and 14% of visible minority women, versus 11% of other women, had a degree in health professions, sciences, and technologies. Similarly, 20% of female visible minority university graduates had a degree in commerce or business administration, compared with just 10% of other women. (Table 10.10)

Southeast Asians, Chinese, and Arab and West Asians are the most likely university-educated women to have degrees in the sciences, while Filipinas and Chinese women are particularly likely to have degrees in commerce, management, or business administration. Among female university graduates, 28% of Southeast Asians and 26% of both Chinese and Arab and West Asians had science degrees in 1996, compared with 14% of Japanese and 12% of Blacks. At the same time, 32% of Filipinas and 24% of Chinese women with degrees were commerce graduates, although only 9% of Korean women and 8% of Japanese women had studied commerce.[2]

Visible minority women are underrepresented among women holding degrees in education, recreation, or counselling services. In 1996, just 12% of female visible minority graduates had degrees in this field, compared with 29% of non-visible minority female graduates. Japanese (19%) and Latin American (17%) women were the female visible minority graduates most likely to have degrees in education, recreation, and counselling services, but even these women were much less likely to have studied these subjects compared with non-visible minority women.[2]

Visible minority women are less than half as likely as their male counterparts to have graduated with a science degree. In 1996, 21% of visible minority women with degrees, versus 45% of male visible minority graduates, had degrees in a scientific field of study. On the other hand, visible minority women were about equally as likely as visible minority men to have completed their studies in commerce or business administration, and they were three times more likely to hold degrees in education, recreation, and counselling services (12% versus 4%). (Table 10.10)

Less likely to be employed

As a group, visible minority women are less likely than other Canadian women to be employed. In the week prior to the 1996 Census, 53% of all visible minority women aged 15-64 were either paid employees or were self-employed, compared with 63% of non-visible minority women in this age range. Women who were not employed in this period were either unemployed and looking for work or were not involved in the labour force. Women not in the labour force may have chosen not to work for pay or profit in order to attend school or care for children or other dependants, or they may have been unable to participate in the paid workforce because of illness or disability. (Table 10.11)

Differences in employment between visible minority women and other women are greatest among the young. In the week prior to the 1996 Census, just 36% of visible minority women aged 15-24 held jobs, compared with 52% of non-visible minority women in this age group. These differences may be linked to higher unemployment rates as well as to higher levels of school attendance among visible minority women. For example, in 1995-96 75% of visible minority females aged 15-24 were attending school, compared with 65% of non-visible minority females.

Visible minority women between the ages of 35 and 54 are more likely to be employed than are visible minority women in other age groups. Nevertheless, these women are still less likely to be part of the paid workforce than are non-visible minorities. For example, 63% of visible minority women aged 35-44 were employed in the week prior to the 1996 Census, compared with 74% of non-visible minority women in this age group. It is only among women aged 55-64 that the gap in employment rates virtually disappears: 36% of visible minority women and 37% of non-visible minority women aged 55-64 were employed in the reference week.

Filipinas are considerably more likely to be employed than either non-visible minority women or women in other visible minority groups. In the week prior to the 1996 Census, 72% of Filipinas aged 15-64 were employed; this was nearly 10 percentage points higher than the figure for non-visible minority women (63%). Japanese women were the next most likely to be working for pay or in self-employment (57%), while Southeast Asians (46%), Latin Americans (45%), and Arab or West Asians (39%) were the least likely to be employed.

As with the overall population, women in a visible minority are less likely to be employed than are their male counterparts. In the week prior to the 1996 Census, 53% of visible minority women aged 15-64 were employed, compared with 65% of visible minority men.

Higher rates of unemployment

In spite of high educational qualifications, visible minority women experience considerably greater levels of unemployment than other women. In the week prior to the 1996 Census, 15% of visible minority females aged 15-64 were unable to find work, compared with 9% of non-visible minority women. (Table 10.12)

Differences in unemployment between visible minority females and non-visible minority females are particularly large among younger women. In the week prior to the 1996 Census, 23% of visible minority females aged 15-24 were unable to find work, compared with 16% of non-visible minority women in this age group. Among both visible minority and non-visible minority women, the young had the highest unemployment rates of any age group. Nevertheless, even among older women, unemployment rates for visible minorities were at least five percentage points higher than those for non-visible minorities.

Unemployment rates for visible minority women are affected not only by age, but also by characteristics such as area of residence, family status, educational attainment, and length of time in Canada. Visible minority women who are recent immigrants may encounter particular problems in their search for employment because they may have limited local contacts and little or no Canadian work experience. As well, these women may only possess foreign educational and occupational qualifications which might not be recognised by all employers in this country.[1]

Accordingly, there is considerable variation in the rate of unemployment among women in different visible minority groups. For example, among females aged 15-64, 22% of Arab or West Asians, 22% of Latin Americans, 20% of Blacks, and 19% of both Southeast and South Asians were unemployed in the week prior to the 1996 Census, compared with just 8% of Japanese women and Filipinas.

In general, visible minority women experience slightly higher levels of unemployment than their male counterparts. In the week prior to the 1996 Census, 15% of visible minority women aged 15-64 were unemployed, compared with 13% of visible minority men.

Percentage of employed women aged 15-64 who worked mostly full-time, by visible minority group, 1995



Source: *Statistics Canada, 1996 Census of Canada.*

More likely to be employed full-time than non-visible minority women

Visible minority women who are able to find jobs are more likely to be employed full-time than are non-visible minority women. About 72% of visible minority women aged 15-64 who were employed in 1995 were employed mostly full-time, compared with 67% of other women. (Chart 10.3)

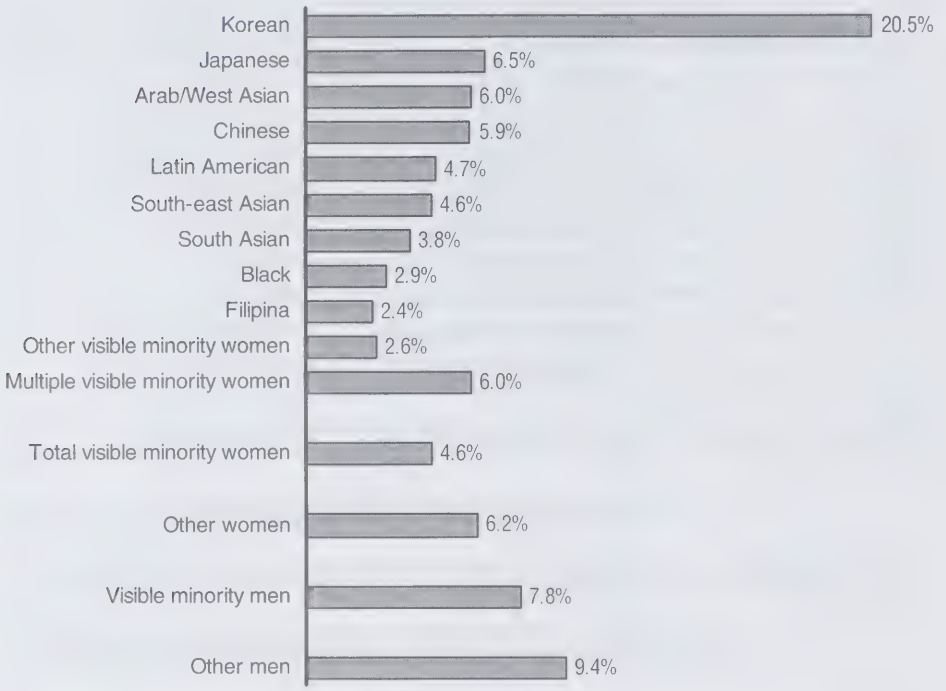
Filipinas and Southeast Asians are the women most likely to be employed full-time, while Arab or West Asian women and Japanese women are the least likely. In 1995, more than three-quarters of Filipinas (77%) and Southeast Asian women (76%) aged 15-64 were employed on a mainly full-time basis, versus 64% of Arab or West Asian women and 65% of Japanese women.

Nonetheless, women in a visible minority, like other women, are considerably less likely to be employed full-time than their male counterparts and are more likely to hold a part-time job. Of those who were part of the paid workforce in 1995, 28% of visible minority women were employed mostly part-time, compared with 18% of visible minority men.[2]

A small proportion self-employed

Like non-visible minority women, a small proportion of visible minority women are self-employed. Of those who were employed in 1995 or 1996, 5% of visible minority women aged 15-64 were self-employed, compared with 6% of other Canadian women, 8% of visible minority men, and 9% of other men. (Chart 10.4)

Percentage of employed women aged 15-64 who were self-employed in 1995 or 1996, by visible minority group



Source: *Statistics Canada, 1996 Census of Canada.*

Korean women are considerably more likely to be self-employed than are other women in Canada. In fact, 21% of Korean women who were employed in 1995 or 1996 were self-employed, whereas the figure for women in other visible minority groups ranged from 7% among Japanese to just 2% among Filipinas.

Korean women are also the women most likely to be employed as unpaid family workers. In 1995-96, 5% of Korean women worked without pay for a relative in a family business or farm, compared with 2% of Arab or West Asian women and 1% or fewer of women in all other groups.[2]

Majority employed in administrative, clerical, sales, and service jobs

Visible minority women are concentrated in occupations in which Canadian women have traditionally been employed. Indeed, among females aged 15 and over who were part of the paid workforce in 1995 or 1996, 60% of visible minority women were employed in clerical, service, or sales jobs, as were 61% of non-visible minority women. Specifically, 36% of visible minority women were employed in sales or service, while 24% were administrative or clerical personnel. (Table 10.13)

Although visible minority women are also about as likely as non-visible minority women to be managers, these women are slightly less likely to be professionals. In 1995-96, 5% of employed visible minority women aged 15 and over held management positions, compared with 6% of non-visible minority women. At the same time, 13% of visible minority women were employed in professional occupations, while 16% of other women were professionals.

On the other hand, visible minority women are twice as likely as other women to be employed in manual jobs.[9] Of those who worked for pay or profit in 1995 or 1996, 13% of visible minority women were semi-skilled or other manual workers, compared with just 7% of other women. Southeast Asian (32%), South Asian (19%), and Latin American (16%) women were particularly likely to be manual workers.

As in the non-visible minority population, females and males tend to be employed in different jobs. In 1995-96, visible minority women were considerably more likely to be employed as clerical, service or sales workers than were visible minority men: 60% versus 36%. In contrast, these women were only half as likely as visible minority men to be employed as managers (5% versus 10%) and were slightly less likely to be employed as professionals (13% versus 15%). Visible minority women also worked less often in manual jobs compared with visible minority men, 13% of these females were manual workers in 1995-96 compared with 22% of visible minority males.

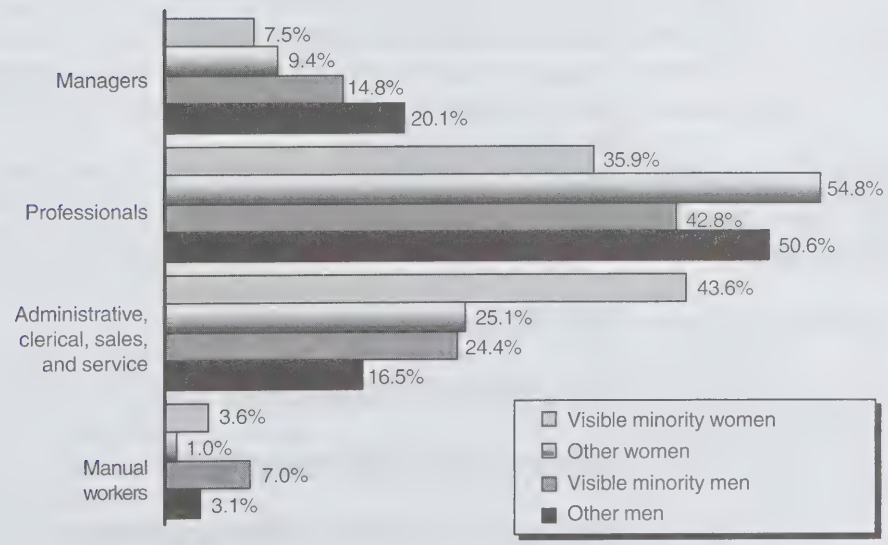
University-educated relatively unlikely to be managers or professionals

University-educated visible minority and non-visible minority women have quite different occupational profiles. Among those who were employed in 1995 or 1996, 44% of visible minority women aged 15-64 who held a bachelor's degree or higher were working in clerical, sales, or service jobs, compared with 25% of other women with a degree. In addition, 4% of university-educated visible minority women were employed as manual workers,[9] compared with 1% of non-visible minority women. (Chart 10.5)

Despite their university training, visible minority women with degrees are considerably less likely than non-visible minority women to be employed in professional positions and are also slightly less likely to be employed in management. Of women with university degrees who were employed in 1995 or 1996, just 36% of visible minority females

Chart 10.5

Percentage of visible minority women and other groups aged 15-64 who had a bachelor's degree or higher and who worked in selected occupations, 1995-96



Source: *Statistics Canada, 1996 Census of Canada.*

aged 15-64 worked in professional occupations, compared with 55% of their non-visible minority counterparts. At the same time, 8% of visible minority women with degrees held management positions, versus 9% of other female university graduates.

Interestingly, university-educated visible minority women from different backgrounds are likely to be employed in different types of occupations. Among visible minority women with degrees who worked in 1995 or 1996, Koreans were the most likely to work in management (20%), while Japanese (47%) and Blacks (46%) were the most likely to undertake professional work. Filipinas were the most likely to work in administrative, clerical, sales, or service positions (61%), while South Asian women held the highest share of manual jobs (8%).[2]

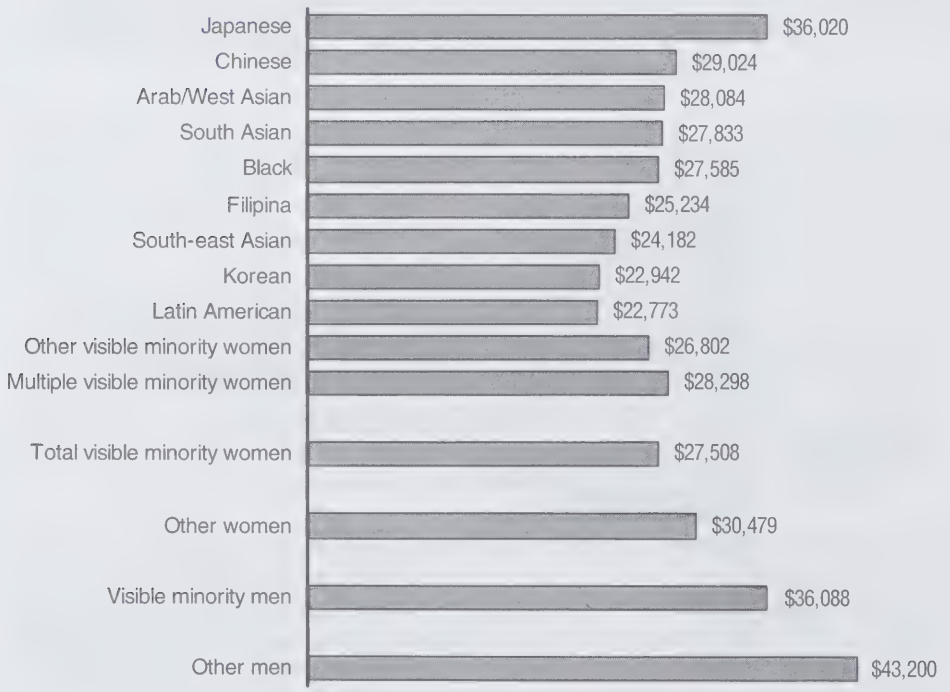
There are also substantial differences in the occupational distribution of university-educated visible minority women and men. Visible minority women who held a bachelor's degree or higher and who were employed in 1995 or 1996 were much more likely than their male counterparts to be employed in clerical, sales, or service positions (44% versus 24%). In contrast, these women were less likely to be working in professional occupations (36% versus 43%), and were also only about half as likely to be managers (8% versus 15%). (Chart 10.5)

Lower employment earnings

Visible minority women generally earn less at their jobs than do other women. Among females aged 15-64 who were employed on a full-time, full-year basis in 1995, visible minority women earned an average of $27,500, about $3,000 less than the employment earnings of non-visible minority women ($30,500) that year. (Chart 10.6)

WOMEN IN CANADA Chart 10.6

Average employment earnings for women aged 15-64, by visible minority group, 1995



Source: *Statistics Canada, 1996 Census of Canada.*

Japanese women who were employed full-year, full-time had the highest average employment earnings among visible minority women in 1995, at $36,000. This was even higher than the average full-time, full-year earnings of non-visible minority women ($30,500). After Japanese and non-visible minority women, Chinese females had the next highest employment earnings, averaging $29,000 in 1995. In marked contrast, Latin American and Korean women who were employed full-year, full-time earned less than $23,000, on average.

Similar to the situation in the non-visible minority population, women in a visible minority earned about 76% as much as their male counterparts for full-year, full-time employment in 1995. Visible minority women received an average of $27,500 for full-time employment, while men earned about $36,100, a difference of $8,600. Among some visible minority groups, however, the difference in earnings was even greater than this. For example, Japanese women who were employed full-time in 1995 earned almost $20,000 less per year than Japanese men and South Asian women earned about $10,000 less than South Asian men.[2]

Relatively low average incomes

On average, visible minority women have relatively low total incomes. In 1995, the average income from all sources, including employment earnings, investment income, and transfer payments, was $16,600 for visible minority females aged 15 and over, almost $3,000 less than the figure for other women in Canada ($19,500). (Table 10.14)

As with non-visible minority women, incomes tend to be highest among middle-aged visible minority women. In 1995, average total incomes for visible minority women were highest for those aged 45-54, at $22,400, followed by those aged 35-44, at $20,700. Nevertheless, these values were still considerably lower than those for non-visible minority women in the same age groups, who had average incomes around $25,000.

Differences in average incomes among visible minority women and non-visible minority women are greatest, however, for senior women. Visible minority women aged 65 and over had an average income of $12,200 in 1995, a figure nearly $5,000 less than that for their non-visible minority counterparts ($17,100).

Largely reflecting their earnings from employment, Japanese women aged 15 and over had the highest average total incomes of any women in 1995. That year, Japanese females had an average income of $21,300, compared with $19,500 for non-visible minority women. Among other visible minority groups, average incomes ranged from $18,400 for Filipinas to $13,100 for Latin American women.

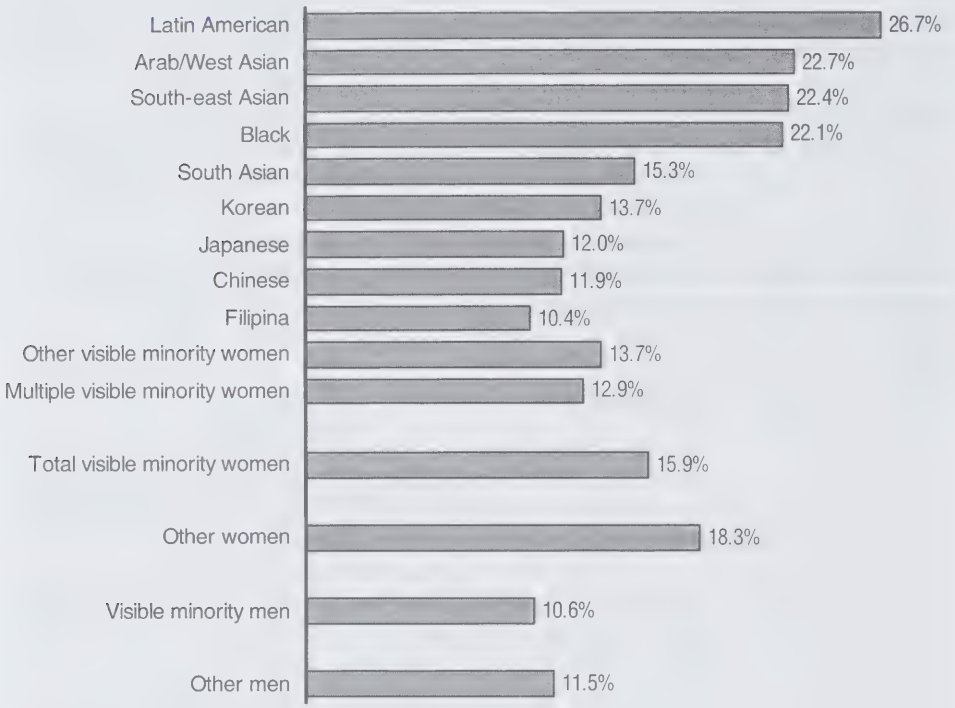
Visible minority women have much lower average incomes than do visible minority men. In 1995, the average income of visible minority women was only 70% that of their male counterparts: $16,600 versus $23,600. This was true regardless of age group, as differences in income ranged from about $700 among 15- to 24-year-olds to $12,000 among those aged 55-64.

Income from government transfer payments varies by group

Compared with other women, visible minority women generally obtain a slightly smaller proportion of their total income from government transfer payments, including pension plan benefits and employment insurance. In 1995, 16% of the total income of visible minority women came from transfer payments, while 18% of the income of other women came from this source. (Chart 10.7)

 Chart 10.7

Government transfer payments as a percentage of all income received by women aged 15 and over, by visible minority group, 1995



Source: *Statistics Canada, 1996 Census of Canada.*

Nevertheless, some visible minority women receive a greater share of their income in the form of government transfer payments than other visible minority women. Government transfers accounted for more than one-quarter of the income of Latin American (27%) women in 1995 and also accounted for a substantial share of the income of Arab or West Asian (23%), Southeast Asian (22%), and Black women (22%) that year. In contrast, just 12% of the total income of Chinese women and 10% of that of Filipinas came from government transfer payments in 1995.

Visible minority women tend to depend more on government transfer payments than do men. In 1995, these payments made up 16% of the total income of female visible minorities, versus 12% of that of male visible minorities. Differences among women and men in terms of the share of total income accounted for by government transfer payments were most marked among Latin Americans, Blacks, and Southeast Asians, possibly because of the higher proportion of female lone parents among these groups.[2]

A high proportion have low incomes

Visible minority women are nearly twice as likely as other women in Canada to have low incomes. In 1995, 37% of visible minority women living in private households had incomes below Statistics Canada's Low Income Cut-offs,[10] compared with 19% of other women. (Table 10.15)

Visible minority women are more likely to be living in low-income situations than are non-visible minority women, regardless of age group. In 1995, young females in a visible minority had the highest incidence of low income and were about twice as likely

to be living in low-income situations compared with young females who were not in a visible minority group. That year, 43% of visible minority females under the age of 15, and 41% of those aged 15-24, were living in low-income situations. In contrast, 20% of non-visible minority females under the age of 15, and 24% of those aged 15-24, were living with low incomes in 1995.

Although all visible minority groups had a higher share of women living in low-income situations compared with non-visible minority women in 1995, the incidence of low income does vary considerably by visible minority group. More than half of Arab or West Asian women (52%) and Latin American women (51%) were living in low-income situations in 1995, as were nearly half of Black (47%), Korean (46%), and Southeast Asian (44%) women. At the other end of the scale, 26% of Filipinas and 21% of Japanese women were living with low incomes.

Visible minority women were slightly more likely to be living in a low income situation in 1995 than were visible minority men. That year, 37% of visible minority women and 35% of visible minority men were living with low incomes.

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1 *For more information on immigrant women, see Chapter 9.*

2 *Source: Statistics Canada, 1996 Census of Canada.*

3 *Immigrants include people who are not Canadian citizens by birth, but who have been granted landed-immigrant status, that is, the right to live in Canada permanently. Some immigrants have lived in Canada for a number of years, while others are recent arrivals. Most immigrants are born outside Canada, but a small number were born in Canada.*

4 *An additional 3% of visible minority women were non-permanent residents in 1996. Non-permanent residents include persons who hold a student authorization, employment authorization, or Minister's permit and persons who are refugee claimants. Non-permanent residents can apply for landed immigrant status and become immigrants to Canada.*

5 *For more information on the distribution of visible minorities in these three CMAs, please refer to "Visible minorities in Toronto, Vancouver and Montréal," by Jennifer Chard and Viviane Renaud in* Canadian Social Trends, *Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 11-008-XPE, Autumn 1999.*

6 *The census question on knowledge of official languages asks respondents whether they are able to conduct a conversation in either or both English and French. The information collected is thus based on respondents' self-assessments and may overstate (or understate) the actual abilities of these individuals in either or both languages.*

7 *This figure includes females who may still be attending university.*

8 *Includes agricultural and biological sciences/technologies, engineering and applied sciences, and mathematics and physical sciences.*

9 *Manual workers include, for example, sewing machine operators, farm workers, photographic and film processors, delivery or taxi drivers, persons working in various types of assembly, fabrication, inspecting and testing, etc.*

10 *For a definition of the Low Income Cut-offs, see Chapter 6. In this situation, low income refers to the situation of the individual's economic family or, if they live alone, to their personal income.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 10.1

Women, by visible minority group, 1996

	Number	As a % of all women in Canada	As a % of all visible minority women	As a % of all persons in the visible minority group
Visible minority women				
Chinese	440,135	3.0	27.0	51.2
South Asian	330,430	2.3	20.2	49.3
Black	300,545	2.1	18.4	52.4
Filipina	136,350	0.9	8.4	58.2
Arab/West Asian	110,735	0.8	6.8	45.3
Latin American	89,470	0.6	5.5	50.6
Southeast Asian	86,575	0.6	5.3	50.1
Japanese	36,215	0.3	2.2	53.2
Korean	33,960	0.2	2.1	52.4
Other visible minority	36,735	0.3	2.3	52.7
Multiple visible minority	30,780	0.2	1.9	50.0
Total visible minority women	**1,631,930**	**11.3**	**100.0**	**51.0**

Source: *Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 10.2

Immigrant status of women, by visible minority group, 1996

			Immigrants				
	Born in Canada	Non-permanent residents	Arrived before 1981	Arrived 1981-1990	Arrived 1991-1996	Total immigrants	Total
				%			
Visible minority women							
Chinese	22.8	2.3	21.0	23.8	30.0	74.8	100.0
South Asian	28.3	2.0	24.2	20.4	25.1	69.7	100.0
Black	40.3	3.3	25.0	15.8	15.6	56.4	100.0
Filipina	18.7	3.6	22.8	23.8	31.1	77.7	100.0
Arab/West Asian	21.9	4.8	15.4	26.4	31.7	73.5	100.0
Latin American	17.0	6.0	15.7	33.2	28.0	76.9	100.0
Southeast Asian	22.8	1.8	18.1	36.1	21.2	75.4	100.0
Japanese	60.0	15.3	12.6	4.8	7.2	24.6	100.0
Korean	18.6	9.7	24.5	22.7	24.4	71.6	100.0
Other visible minority	25.5	1.0	29.6	25.0	19.0	73.6	100.0
Multiple visible minority	38.6	1.5	24.3	20.9	14.6	59.8	100.0
Total visible minority women	**27.5**	**3.3**	**21.9**	**22.5**	**24.8**	**69.2**	**100.0**
Other women	88.6	0.2	8.6	1.5	1.1	11.2	100.0
Visible minority men	29.8	3.4	21.6	22.0	23.3	66.8	100.0
Other men	88.9	0.2	8.4	1.5	1.0	10.9	100.0

Source: *Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.*

Urban/rural distribution of visible minority women, 1996

Area of residence	Visible minority women			Other women
	Number	As a % of visible minority women in Canada	As a % of women in region	%
Census metropolitan area				
Toronto	690,595	42.3	31.9	11.5
Vancouver	290,885	17.8	31.6	4.9
Montréal	201,895	12.4	11.9	11.6
Calgary	64,420	3.9	15.8	2.7
Edmonton	58,850	3.6	13.7	2.9
Ottawa[1]	54,315	3.3	14.1	2.6
Winnipeg	36,915	2.3	10.9	2.4
Hamilton	24,235	1.5	7.7	2.3
Kitchener	16,650	1.0	8.7	1.4
London	14,925	0.9	7.4	1.5
Windsor	13,970	0.9	9.9	1.0
Victoria	11,685	0.7	7.5	1.1
Halifax	11,375	0.7	6.7	1.2
Other census metropolitan areas	41,090	2.5	2.7	11.5
Total census metropolitan areas	**1,531,805**	**93.9**	**16.9**	**58.5**
Other urban areas	59,705	3.7	2.6	17.7
Total urban areas	**1,591,510**	**97.5**	**14.0**	**76.2**
Rural areas	40,415	2.5	1.3	23.8
Canada	**1,631,925**	**100.0**	**11.3**	**100.0**

[1] *Does not include Hull.*

Source: *Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.*

 Table 10.4

Top 5 CMAs of residence for women, by visible minority group, 1996

	% of group which lives there				
	1	2	3	4	5
Visible minority women					
Chinese	Toronto 39.1	Vancouver 32.7	Montréal 5.4	Calgary 5.1	Edmonton 4.5
South Asian	Toronto 49.5	Vancouver 18.2	Montréal 6.4	Calgary 3.9	Edmonton 3.6
Black	Toronto 49.1	Montréal 21.8	Ottawa 5.1	Vancouver 2.5	Halifax 2.2
Filipina	Toronto 42.2	Vancouver 17.7	Winnipeg 10.0	Calgary 5.0	Montréal 6.7
Arab/West Asian	Toronto 29.9	Montréal 29.8	Ottawa 8.7	Vancouver 7.6	Edmonton 3.4
Latin American	Toronto 35.3	Montréal 25.9	Vancouver 7.6	Edmonton 3.8	Calgary 3.6
Southeast Asian	Toronto 27.1	Montréal 21.8	Vancouver 12.1	Calgary 5.7	Edmonton 4.9
Japanese	Vancouver 33.2	Toronto 24.2	Calgary 4.5	Montréal 3.6	Edmonton 2.5
Korean	Toronto 44.4	Vancouver 26.0	Montréal 5.4	Calgary 3.2	Edmonton 2.9
Other visible minority	Toronto 66.0	Vancouver 9.6	Montréal 4.9	Calgary 2.2	Edmonton 2.2
Multiple visible minority	Toronto 45.1	Vancouver 16.4	Montréal 7.8	Calgary 5.9	Edmonton 3.9
Total visible minority women	**Toronto 42.3**	**Vancouver 17.8**	**Montréal 12.4**	**Calgary 3.9**	**Edmonton 3.6**
Other women	Montréal 11.6	Toronto 11.5	Vancouver 4.9	Edmonton 2.9	Calgary 2.7
Visible minority men	Toronto 41.4	Vancouver 17.5	Montréal 12.7	Calgary 4.0	Edmonton 3.6
Other men	Toronto 11.4	Montréal 11.2	Vancouver 5.0	Edmonton 2.9	Calgary 2.8

Source: *Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.*

 Table 10.5

Age distribution of women living in a private household, by visible minority group, 1996

	People aged						
	Under 15	15-24	25-44	45-54	55-64	65 and over	Total
				%			
Visible minority women							
Chinese	19.0	15.0	36.0	12.3	8.3	9.4	100.0
South Asian	24.8	16.6	34.4	11.1	7.3	5.8	100.0
Black	28.2	16.5	33.2	11.0	5.9	5.3	100.0
Filipina	17.9	12.5	42.5	14.7	6.1	6.4	100.0
Arab/West Asian	26.5	15.8	36.6	9.7	5.8	5.7	100.0
Latin American	25.4	16.8	39.5	10.1	4.4	3.8	100.0
Southeast Asian	27.7	16.3	39.7	7.3	4.6	4.4	100.0
Japanese	16.3	18.1	32.3	12.4	8.8	12.1	100.0
Korean	17.1	24.0	32.3	14.9	6.1	5.7	100.0
Other visible minority	20.3	15.5	40.4	12.4	6.5	4.8	100.0
Multiple visible minority	32.2	18.9	31.5	8.9	4.7	3.8	100.0
Total visible minority women	**23.3**	**15.9**	**36.0**	**11.4**	**6.7**	**6.6**	**100.0**
Other women	19.4	12.7	32.2	13.0	9.0	13.7	100.0
Visible minority men	25.5	16.7	34.4	11.6	6.6	5.3	100.0
Other men	21.0	13.6	32.5	13.3	8.9	10.7	100.0

Source: *Statistics Canada, Census of Canada*

Family status of women aged 15 and over, by visible minority group, 1996

	Marital spouse or common-law partner	Lone parent	Never-married daughter/son	Living with relatives	Total living with family	Living with non-relatives	Living alone	Total
				%				
Visible minority women								
Chinese	56.5	5.5	21.8	8.5	92.4	2.7	4.9	100.0
South Asian	51.6	13.6	20.5	7.4	93.3	4.0	2.9	100.0
Black	34.2	23.3	19.0	8.4	84.9	4.7	10.5	100.0
Filipina	49.5	7.6	16.1	10.1	83.4	12.2	4.5	100.0
Arab/West Asian	58.8	8.6	18.7	6.7	92.9	1.7	5.5	100.0
Latin American	52.3	16.1	17.0	6.4	91.8	3.7	4.6	100.0
Southeast Asian	51.6	13.6	20.5	7.4	93.3	4.0	2.9	100.0
Japanese	53.2	5.1	14.3	3.3	76.1	10.9	13.3	100.0
Korean	52.9	4.2	24.9	6.1	88.4	5.4	6.4	100.0
Other visible minority	52.2	12.5	17.6	8.6	91.0	3.0	6.0	100.0
Multiple visible minority	46.7	10.1	27.8	5.9	90.9	4.5	5.0	100.0
Total visible minority women	**52.4**	**10.2**	**19.6**	**8.1**	**90.3**	**4.0**	**5.6**	**100.0**
Other women	58.7	7.9	13.0	3.1	82.7	3.6	13.7	100.0
Visible minority men	55.9	1.8	24.6	5.8	88.2	5.4	6.5	100.0
Other men	61.8	1.8	17.8	2.6	84.0	5.2	10.9	100.0

Source: *Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.*

 Table 10.7

Knowledge of official languages of women aged 15 and over, by visible minority group, 1996

	English only	French only	Both English and French	At least one official language	Neither English nor French	Total
			%			
Visible minority women						
Chinese	71.5	0.6	5.3	77.4	22.6	100.0
South Asian	80.7	0.2	7.4	88.3	11.7	100.0
Black	74.0	10.0	14.4	98.5	1.5	100.0
Filipina	94.2	0.1	4.4	98.7	1.3	100.0
Arab/West Asian	52.4	9.4	28.9	90.7	9.3	100.0
Latin American	59.3	14.3	14.1	87.7	12.3	100.0
Southeast Asian	59.6	8.5	14.0	82.1	17.9	100.0
Japanese	86.5	0.5	7.3	94.3	5.7	100.0
Korean	74.5	0.6	7.4	82.5	17.5	100.0
Other visible minority	90.7	0.3	8.0	99.0	1.0	100.0
Multiple visible minority	76.5	1.7	12.9	91.0	9.0	100.0
Total visible minority women	**74.3**	**3.8**	**9.9**	**88.0**	**12.0**	**100.0**
Other women	64.6	15.4	19.2	99.2	0.8	100.0
Visible minority men	78.7	3.1	11.2	93.0	7.0	100.0
Other men	65.9	13.0	20.6	99.5	0.5	100.0

Source: *Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.*

Percentage of women aged 15 and over attending school either full-time or part-time in the period September 1995 to May 1996, by age and visible minority group

	People aged				
	15-19	20-24	25-34	35-44	45 and over
			%		
Visible minority women					
Chinese	92.0	75.4	24.8	14.0	5.1
South Asian	87.6	54.2	18.6	12.2	3.9
Black	87.3	63.2	34.0	23.4	9.4
Filipina	85.2	56.9	16.2	11.5	5.0
Arab/West Asian	88.3	57.1	26.9	21.2	6.9
Latin American	85.0	52.7	27.1	22.0	11.8
Southeast Asian	86.4	57.2	19.1	13.3	5.2
Japanese	86.2	72.4	25.2	13.1	2.9
Korean	89.3	81.9	33.7	14.4	4.6
Other visible minority	88.3	53.9	21.7	13.4	5.1
Multiple visible minority	87.4	66.2	26.6	12.4	7.8
Total visible minority women	**88.4**	**63.3**	**24.6**	**15.7**	**5.9**
Other women	82.1	47.5	15.9	10.7	3.0
Visible minority men	87.6	64.3	23.7	13.3	5.2
Other men	80.2	43.2	13.9	7.4	2.2

Source: *Statistics Canada, 1996 Census of Canada.*

Highest level of education for women aged 15 and over, by visible minority group, 1996

	Less than grade 9	Grades 9-13	Non-university post-secondary	University without degree	University with bachelor's or first professional degree	University with degree higher than bachelor's degree	Total with university degree	Total
					%			
Visible minority women								
Chinese	18.4	32.8	19.2	11.5	14.3	3.9	18.2	100.0
South Asian	15.3	35.9	19.3	10.9	12.9	5.7	18.6	100.0
Black	9.5	35.4	35.3	11.2	6.5	2.2	8.7	100.0
Filipina	6.1	20.1	20.6	23.5	25.6	4.2	29.8	100.0
Arab/West Asian	13.7	33.1	18.3	14.1	15.1	5.9	21.0	100.0
Latin American	14.6	35.7	26.6	14.0	5.9	3.2	9.1	100.0
Southeast Asian	24.4	39.5	16.7	9.9	7.5	2.0	9.5	100.0
Japanese	4.0	30.3	27.5	16.2	17.6	4.4	22.0	100.0
Korean	5.3	33.9	12.9	21.6	21.5	4.7	26.2	100.0
Other visible minority	9.8	37.6	35.8	10.2	4.7	1.9	6.6	100.0
Multiple visible minority	12.7	31.2	23.8	15.6	12.7	3.9	16.6	100.0
Total visible minority women	**14.0**	**33.3**	**22.8**	**13.0**	**12.9**	**4.0**	**16.9**	**100.0**
Other women	12.2	38.6	27.9	9.7	8.4	3.3	11.7	100.0
Visible minority men	8.7	33.5	21.5	14.3	14.7	7.3	22.0	100.0
Other men	12.1	36.3	29.4	8.8	8.9	4.5	13.4	100.0

Source: *Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.*

 Table 10.10

Major field of study for visible minority and other women and men with a university degree, 1996

	Visible minorities		Other persons	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
		%		
Commerce, management, and business administration	20.1	19.2	10.3	17.9
Sciences				
Agricultural and biological sciences/technologies	6.6	4.8	5.1	4.5
Engineering and applied sciences	5.0	26.2	2.3	16.1
Mathematics and physical sciences	9.4	14.7	3.8	9.4
Total sciences	20.9	45.7	11.2	30.1
Health professions, sciences, and technologies	13.8	9.6	10.7	6.7
Educational, recreational, and counselling services	12.1	4.4	28.5	13.8
Social sciences and related fields	17.7	13.3	20.8	18.6
Humanities and related fields	12.5	6.5	14.7	10.9
Fine and applied arts	2.8	1.2	3.7	1.9
No specialization and other specialization	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
Total with a bachelor's degree or higher	**211,945**	**256,690**	**1,212,760**	**1,319,380**

Source: *Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.*

 Table 10.11

Employment rates[1] for women aged 15-64, by age and visible minority group, 1996

	People aged					
	15-24	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-64	Total 15-64
			%			
Visible minority women						
Chinese	32.8	64.8	62.9	59.7	29.1	52.6
South Asian	39.4	57.1	62.3	57.9	26.6	51.0
Black	32.3	54.7	63.4	71.3	54.1	53.7
Filipina	51.0	76.6	78.0	81.6	56.1	72.2
Arab/West Asian	32.9	39.2	46.6	46.0	21.9	39.1
Latin American	32.9	47.0	52.3	53.9	35.1	45.3
Southeast Asian	33.6	50.3	54.0	52.9	24.2	45.9
Japanese	38.7	62.2	67.9	69.6	49.1	57.0
Korean	31.9	55.1	60.4	64.2	46.9	50.1
Other visible minority	43.1	70.4	71.4	64.5	38.3	61.2
Multiple visible minority	40.3	70.6	69.5	71.4	41.8	59.4
Total visible minority women	**35.9**	**58.7**	**62.6**	**63.1**	**35.5**	**53.0**
Other women	51.9	71.6	73.8	69.3	36.5	63.3
Visible minority men	36.4	73.7	77.2	77.2	57.2	64.6
Other men	53.6	82.8	85.0	83.0	56.4	74.1

[1] *Refers to those employed in the week prior to the 1996 Census.*

Source: *Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.*

 Table 10.12

Unemployment rates[1] for women aged 15-64, by age and visible minority group, 1996

	Labour force participants aged					
	15-24	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-64	Total 15-64
	%					
Visible minority women						
Chinese	17.4	10.8	9.1	8.5	10.0	10.7
South Asian	24.4	17.6	15.8	16.3	23.6	18.6
Black	31.8	22.4	17.7	12.0	10.2	19.8
Filipina	14.4	7.8	6.6	5.6	8.2	7.8
Arab/West Asian	22.8	23.4	21.3	18.3	22.0	21.8
Latin American	26.1	21.7	21.0	18.7	14.7	21.5
Southeast Asian	23.5	19.7	16.6	17.4	19.0	19.1
Japanese	15.6	6.6	5.2	4.7	5.2	7.5
Korean	16.7	8.6	9.8	7.4	8.1	10.3
Other visible minority	24.9	12.7	11.4	15.2	14.6	14.9
Multiple visible minority	24.5	10.8	10.0	7.6	6.2	13.1
Total visible minority women	**23.0**	**15.7**	**13.1**	**11.5**	**13.1**	**15.3**
Other women	16.3	9.5	7.7	6.8	7.1	9.4
Visible minority men	23.1	12.9	11.1	9.6	11.4	13.2
Other men	17.8	10.1	8.0	7.2	8.6	9.9

[1] *Refers to those unemployed in the week prior to the 1996 Census.*

Source: *Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.*

 Table 10.13

Occupational distribution of the population aged 15 and over employed in 1995 or 1996

	Occupation						
	Managers	Profes-sionals	Adminis-trative/ clerical	Sales/ service	Manual	Other	Total
				%			
Visible minority women							
Chinese	6.8	15.7	26.2	30.8	13.2	7.4	100.0
South Asian	4.7	12.0	25.7	32.0	18.7	7.0	100.0
Black	3.3	14.3	24.1	38.7	10.9	8.8	100.0
Filipina	2.6	11.5	20.1	49.7	8.5	7.5	100.0
Arab/West Asian	7.9	15.9	21.8	39.8	6.0	8.6	100.0
Latin American	3.4	8.1	18.0	46.5	16.3	7.8	100.0
Southeast Asian	3.9	9.3	13.8	32.6	31.8	8.8	100.0
Japanese	7.1	19.9	27.4	33.7	2.8	8.9	100.0
Korean	19.2	12.6	14.5	43.2	4.8	5.6	100.0
Other visible minority	3.7	10.3	33.4	32.3	12.5	7.7	100.0
Multiple visible minority	4.8	14.1	26.4	32.3	13.1	9.2	100.0
Total visible minority women	**5.2**	**13.4**	**23.8**	**36.4**	**13.4**	**7.8**	**100.0**
Other women	6.1	16.1	27.3	33.9	6.5	10.1	100.0
Visible minority men	10.0	14.8	9.8	26.6	21.6	17.2	100.0
Other men	11.1	12.0	7.2	20.3	22.8	26.5	100.0

Source: *Statistics Canada, 1996 Census of Canada.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 10.14

Average total income of women aged 15 and over, by age and visible minority group, 1995

	People aged						
	15-24	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-64	65 and over	Total
				$			
Visible minority women							
Chinese	6,126	19,516	22,021	22,054	14,782	12,015	17,188
South Asian	6,956	17,018	21,383	22,221	15,107	10,825	16,230
Black	6,521	16,183	20,720	23,954	20,793	13,829	16,959
Filipina	7,469	17,015	20,431	25,813	21,792	11,239	18,434
Arab/West Asian	6,477	14,639	17,274	18,516	14,520	11,331	14,100
Latin American	6,937	13,846	15,272	16,329	12,364	10,108	13,086
Southeast Asian	7,081	15,683	18,590	17,433	10,517	8,769	14,386
Japanese	7,324	20,715	29,199	28,727	24,742	20,507	21,259
Korean	4,616	16,878	17,803	18,056	18,245	11,841	14,036
Other visible minority	7,476	19,790	22,881	21,747	17,157	12,113	18,273
Multiple visible minority	6,472	18,872	22,225	24,963	15,178	12,760	17,050
Total visible minority women	**6,612**	**17,266**	**20,714**	**22,370**	**16,663**	**12,179**	**16,621**
Other women	7,669	20,573	24,587	25,035	18,207	17,103	19,495
Visible minority men	7,255	21,992	29,673	33,533	28,711	16,764	23,635
Other men	9,545	29,347	40,039	43,786	36,258	26,974	31,951

Source: *Statistics Canada, 1996 Census of Canada.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 10.15

Incidence of low income among women living in a private household, by age and visible minority group, 1995

	People aged					
	Under 15	15-24	25-44	45-64	65 and over	Total
			%			
Visible minority women						
Chinese	31.9	41.0	30.9	29.2	34.4	32.6
South Asian	34.1	28.6	30.0	22.8	25.7	29.2
Black	56.3	49.8	47.6	29.8	42.2	47.1
Filipina	26.4	25.8	31.2	17.4	23.1	26.3
Arab/West Asian	64.0	51.5	51.7	39.4	40.7	52.4
Latin American	59.8	53.7	49.3	39.0	41.3	50.9
Southeast Asian	52.0	46.1	40.1	35.7	38.6	43.8
Japanese	15.1	42.3	20.1	10.2	17.5	20.7
Korean	43.8	54.1	43.6	37.5	55.1	45.5
Other visible minority	33.0	28.2	24.5	21.7	29.4	26.5
Multiple visible minority	34.0	30.2	26.8	22.0	25.8	29.1
Total visible minority women	**42.9**	**40.7**	**36.5**	**27.5**	**33.3**	**36.8**
Other women	20.4	23.9	17.4	15.4	23.3	19.2
Visible minority men	42.6	38.2	33.5	26.0	30.2	35.0
Other men	20.4	19.4	14.8	13.4	12.2	16.0

Source: *Statistics Canada, 1996 Census of Canada.*

CHAPTER 11

Aboriginal Women

by Heather Tait

The female Aboriginal population

Aboriginal women are another group of women in Canada that may be doubly disadvantaged; that is, in some cases they face discrimination based not only on their gender, but also on their race. In 1996, there was a total of 408,100 Aboriginal women in Canada, who made up 3% of the total female population that year.[1] (Table 11.1)

As with the overall population, women make up the majority of the Aboriginal people in Canada. In 1996, females made up 51% of the total Aboriginal population.

Most Aboriginal women in Canada are North American Indian. In 1996, 66% of all Aboriginal females were North American Indian, while 25% were Métis and 5% were Inuit.[2] That year, women made up 51% of the total North American Indian population in Canada and around 50% of both the Métis and Inuit groups.

WOMEN IN CANADA

Aboriginal women registered under the *Indian Act*

As with Aboriginal men, most Aboriginal women are registered under the *Indian Act*. In 1996, 62% of Aboriginal females were registered, as were 60% of Aboriginal men.[3]

It should be noted, however, that in the past, legislation regarding the registration of North American Indian people treated women and men differently. Prior to 1985, under certain provisions of the *Indian Act*, Aboriginal women who married non-Aboriginal men automatically lost their status and, as a result, their First Nation (Band) membership. As well, these women could no longer pass their status on to their children. The opposite was true for Aboriginal men marrying non-Aboriginal women, in that the *Indian Act* conferred status to non-Aboriginal women who married Aboriginal men.

Changes were made to the *Indian Act* in 1985 through Bill C-31, which allowed many disenfranchised women and their children to reclaim their status and, in some cases, their First Nation membership. Those eligible to have status and/or First Nation membership restored under Bill C-31 included women who had lost status and First Nation membership either because of marriage to a non-Aboriginal man or because of other discriminatory clauses. Also included among those eligible to reclaim their status were individuals who had lost or been denied status because of discriminatory clauses, such as those requiring Aboriginal people to give up status and First Nation membership in return for the right to vote or to join the armed forces.

Aboriginal women across the country

Manitoba and Saskatchewan are the provinces with the largest proportion of Aboriginal women in their female populations. In 1996, Aboriginal women made up almost 12% of all females in both these provinces, compared with 5% in Alberta, 4% in British Columbia, 3% in Newfoundland, and around 1% in the remaining provinces. (Table 11.2)

Aboriginal women make up much larger shares of the population living in the territories. In 1996, 86% of women in Nunavut were Aboriginal, as were 50% of those in the Northwest Territories and 22% of those in the Yukon.

In terms of actual numbers, however, the largest numbers of Aboriginal women in Canada live in Ontario and British Columbia. In 1996, there were over 70,000 Aboriginal women in both of these provinces, with each accounting for about 18% of the total female Aboriginal population in Canada. At the same time, 16% of the female Aboriginal population lived in Manitoba, while 15% was in Alberta, 14% was in Saskatchewan, 9% was in Quebec, and 5% was in the Atlantic provinces. The remaining 6% of all Aboriginal women in Canada lived in one of the territories.

There is considerable variation, however, in the distribution of women in the different Aboriginal groups across the country. The largest shares of North American Indian women in 1996, for example, lived in either Ontario (22%) or British Columbia (20%), while Alberta (24%) and Manitoba (22%) were home to the largest concentrations of Métis women. In contrast, most Inuit women lived in Nunavut; indeed, 50% of all Inuit women resided in Nunavut that year, while 20% lived in Quebec. (Table 11.3)

Aboriginal women living on and off reserve

The majority of Aboriginal women live off reserves. In 1996, 72% of Aboriginal women lived in non-reserve communities, while only 28% lived on reserves. The on/off-reserve distribution of Aboriginal women was similar to that of Aboriginal men, with women slightly more likely to live off reserve (72% versus 69%) and slightly less likely to be on a reserve (28% versus 31%). (Table 11.4)

Almost all Aboriginal women living on reserves are North American Indian. In 1996, North American Indian women made up 98% of the total female population on reserve, although the majority of North American Indian women (60%) lived off reserve that year. As well, almost all Aboriginal people (98%) who resided in reserve communities were registered under the *Indian Act*.[3]

Urban/rural distribution of Aboriginal women

Just over half of all Aboriginal females in Canada live in an urban setting. In 1996, 51% lived in an area classified as urban, although this was well below the figure for non-Aboriginal women, 79% of whom were living in an urban area that year. (Table 11.4)

Aboriginal women are particularly less likely than their counterparts in the general population to live in a census metropolitan area (CMA); that is, an urban area with 100,000 or more residents. In 1996, 29% of all Aboriginal women lived in a CMA, less than half the figure for non-Aboriginal women, 59% of whom lived in one of Canada's large urban centres. In contrast, Aboriginal women were slightly more likely than other women to live in urban areas with less than 100,000 residents (23% versus 20%) while they were about as likely to live in non-reserve rural areas.

The largest urban concentrations of Aboriginal women are found in Saskatoon, Regina, Winnipeg, and Thunder Bay. In 1996, 8% of the total female population in Saskatoon was Aboriginal, as was 7% of that in each of Regina and Winnipeg and 6% of that in

Thunder Bay. Aboriginal women also accounted for 4% of the total female population in Edmonton, 3% in Sudbury, and 2% in both Calgary and Victoria, while they made up 1% or less of female residents in all other major urban areas. (Chart 11.1)

Winnipeg, however, is the urban centre with the largest actual number of Aboriginal women. In 1996, there were approximately 24,000 Aboriginal women in Winnipeg, while there were 17,000 in Edmonton and 16,000 in Vancouver.[3]

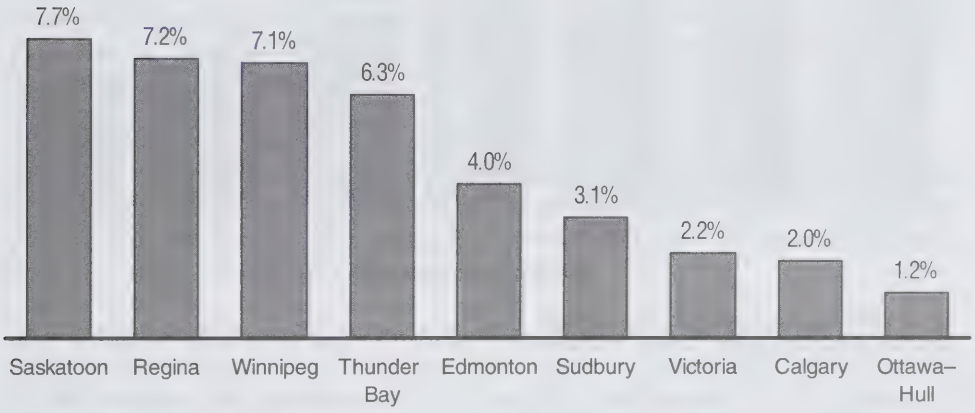
Among Aboriginal women, Métis women are the most urbanized. In 1996, 68% of Métis women were living in cities and towns, compared to 46% of North American Indian women and just 30% of Inuit women.

Mobility patterns among Aboriginal women

Aboriginal women are generally more likely to change their place of residence than are non-Aboriginal women. Between 1991 and 1996, for example, 57% of Aboriginal women, compared with only 43% of non-Aboriginal women, changed their place of residence at least once. Aboriginal women were also slightly more likely to have moved than Aboriginal men, 53% of whom changed residence at least once in this period. (Chart 11.2)

Chart 11.1

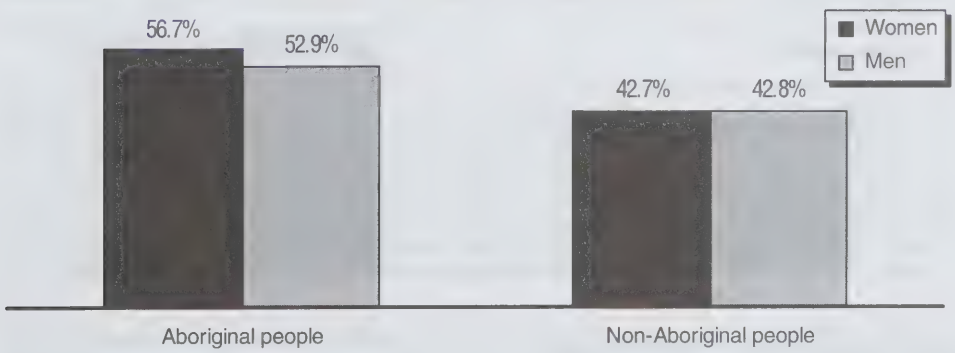
Aboriginal women as a percentage of the total female population in selected census metropolitan areas, 1996



Source: *Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.*

Chart 11.2

Percentage of the Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal population aged 15 and over who moved in the past five years, 1996



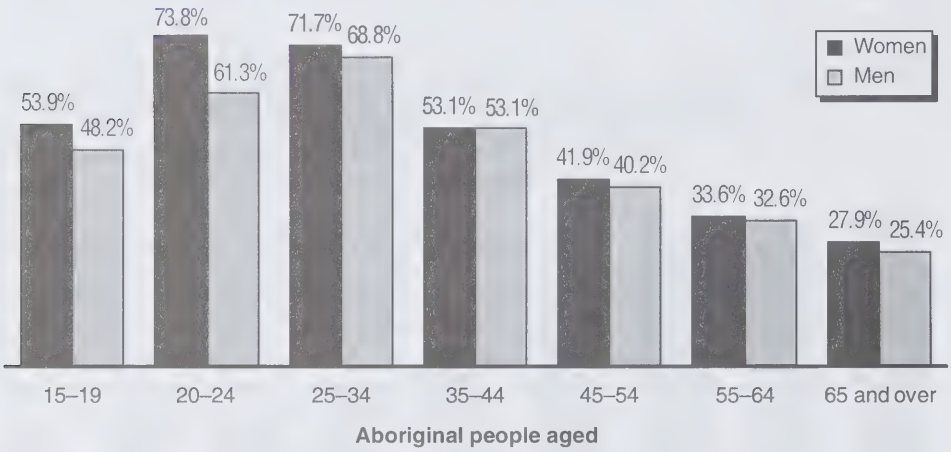
Source: *Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.*

Aboriginal women between the ages of 20 and 34 are particularly likely to move. Between 1991 and 1996, 74% of Aboriginal women aged 20-24, and 72% of those aged 25-34, changed residence at least once. This compared with just over half of those aged 15-19 (54%) and 35-44 (53%), 42% of those aged 45-54, 34% of 55- to 64-year-olds, and 28% of seniors. Indeed, Aboriginal women under age 35 were more likely to have moved than men in the same age groups, while there were few differences in the mobility patterns of Aboriginal women and men over age 35. (Chart 11.3)

Aboriginal women residing off reserves are far more likely than their on-reserve counterparts to move. Between 1991 and 1996, 63% of Aboriginal women living off reserve made at least one residential move, compared with only 40% of Aboriginal women living on reserves. (Chart 11.4)

Chart 11.3

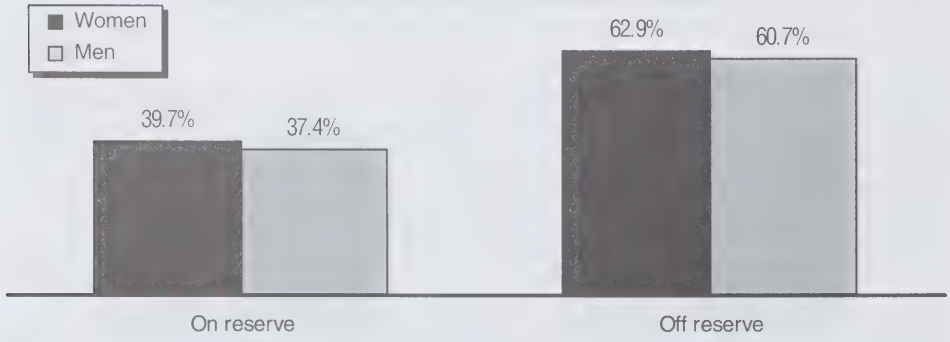
Percentage of Aboriginal women and men who changed their residence in the past five years, by age, 1996[1]



[1] *Data excludes those moving outside Canada.*
Source: *Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.*

 Chart 11.4

Percentage of Aboriginal women and men who moved in the past five years, by area of residence, 1996



Source: *Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.*

A relatively young population

The female Aboriginal population is, on average, very young. In 1996, 34% of Aboriginal females were under 15 years of age, compared with only 19% of their non-Aboriginal counterparts. At the same time, 18% of the female Aboriginal population was aged 15-24, versus only 13% of non-Aboriginal females. (Table 11.5)

In contrast, proportionally fewer Aboriginal women are seniors. In 1996, just 4% of Aboriginal women were aged 65 and over, compared with 13% of non-Aboriginal women. As with the non-Aboriginal population, however, women account for the majority of Aboriginal seniors. That year, Aboriginal women aged 65 and over made up 54% of all Aboriginal seniors.

High fertility rates

One reason that the Aboriginal population is relatively young is that fertility rates are much higher among Aboriginal women than other Canadian women. In 1996, Registered Indian women had a total fertility rate of 2.7 children, that is, they could expect to have that many children, on average, over the course of their lifetime, compared with 1.6 for all Canadian women.[3]

Life expectancy of Aboriginal women

The difference between the shares of the Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal populations accounted for by seniors is also due, in part, to the fact that the life expectancy of Aboriginal women is below that of their non-Aboriginal counterparts. For example, in 1995, the life expectancy for Registered Indian women was 75.7 years, compared with 81.4 years for all Canadian women.[4]

The life expectancy of Registered Indian women, however, has increased rapidly over the last two decades. Between 1975 and 1995, the average life expectancy of Registered Indian women rose 9.8 years, compared with an increase of 3.8 years for all Canadian women. As a result, the life expectancy gap between these two groups has narrowed, from 11.7 years in 1975 to 5.7 years in 1995.

As with the non-Aboriginal population, though, Aboriginal women have considerably longer life expectancies than Aboriginal men. Again, for Registered Indians, women had an average life expectancy of 75.7 years in 1995, versus only 68.0 years for Aboriginal men.

Aboriginal language

Aboriginal women able to speak an Aboriginal language make up a minority of the total female Aboriginal population. In 1996, 29% of all Aboriginal women were able to converse in an Aboriginal language, about the same figure as for Aboriginal men. (Chart 11.5)

It is interesting to note, however, that the proportion of Aboriginal women able to speak an Aboriginal language is actually somewhat greater than the share who report that their mother tongue, that is, the language they first learned and still understand, was an Aboriginal language. In 1996, 29% of Aboriginal women said they could converse in an Aboriginal language, whereas only 23% reported one of these languages was their mother tongue.[3] This may indicate that some Aboriginal women are learning an Aboriginal language later in life.

Among Aboriginal women, the Inuit are by far the most likely to be able to speak an Aboriginal language. In 1996, 73% of Inuit women reported they were able to speak

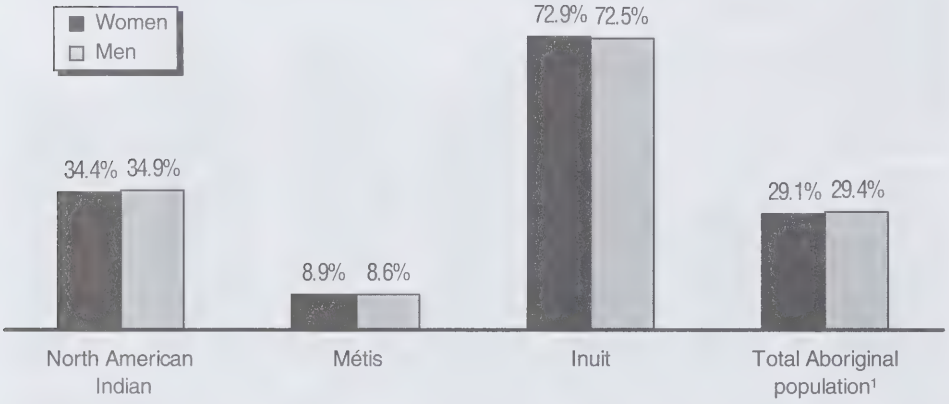
Inuktitut, whereas only 34% of North American Indian women and 9% of Métis women were able to converse in an Aboriginal language.

There are also great differences in the ability to speak an Aboriginal language depending on where Aboriginal women live. In 1996, over half (55%) of those living on reserve reported they were able to speak an Aboriginal language, whereas the figure dropped to 32% among non-reserve rural residents, 17% among those in smaller urban settings, and just 12% of those living in census metropolitan areas. (Chart 11.6)

As well, older Aboriginal women are considerably more likely than their younger counterparts to be able to speak an Aboriginal language. In 1996, 52% of senior Aboriginal women and 47% of those aged 55-64 could speak an Aboriginal language,

WOMEN IN CANADA Chart 11.5

Percentage of the Aboriginal population able to speak an Aboriginal language, by group, 1996

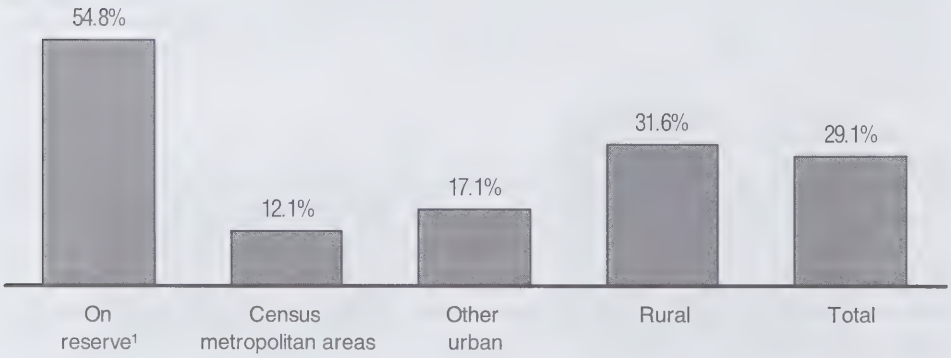


[1] *Includes multiple Aboriginal responses, as well as those who do not consider themselves an Aboriginal person but who are Registered Indian and/or First Nation (Band) members.*

Source: *Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Chart 11.6

Percentage of Aboriginal women able to speak an Aboriginal language, by area of residence, 1996

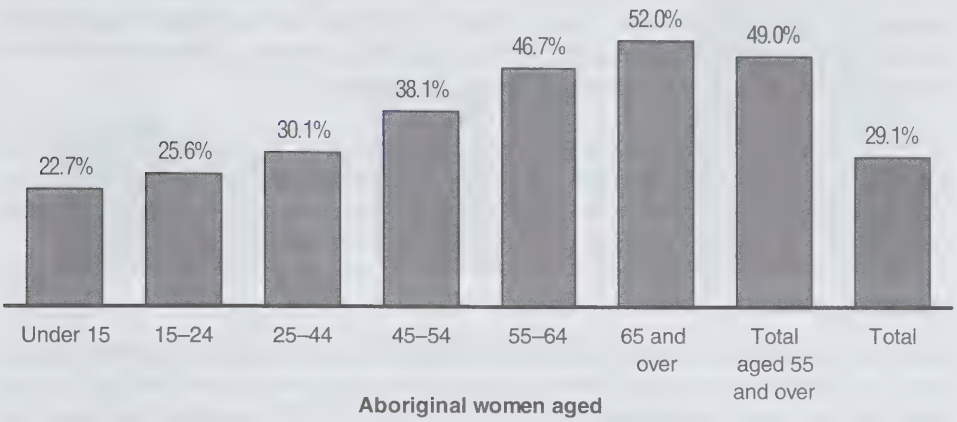


[1] *Includes reserves in urban areas. Does not include an estimated 44,000 people living in 77 incompletely enumerated Indian reserves and settlements.*

Source: *Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.*

 Chart 11.7

Percentage of Aboriginal women able to speak an Aboriginal language, by age, 1996



Source: *Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.*

versus 30% of those aged 25-44, 26% of those aged 15-24, and 23% of those under age 15. (Chart 11.7)

Even smaller percentages of Aboriginal women regularly speak an Aboriginal language in their homes. In 1996, 17% of Aboriginal women reported that they most often spoke an Aboriginal language at home: 14% spoke only an Aboriginal language, while 3% spoke both an Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal language most often. (Table 11.6)

In fact, English is the home language of the majority of Aboriginal women. In 1996, 78% of Aboriginal women reported that English was the language they spoke most often at home, while French was reported by 5%.

As with the ability to speak an Aboriginal language, Inuit women are the most likely Aboriginal women to speak an Aboriginal language most often in their homes. In 1996, 57% of Inuit women reported that they most often spoke an Aboriginal language at home, compared with 20% of North American Indian women and just 3% of Métis women.

Family status of Aboriginal women

A relatively large proportion of Aboriginal women in Canada live with either their immediate or extended family. In 1996, 88% of these women aged 15 and over lived with family members, compared with 83% of both non-Aboriginal women and Aboriginal men. (Table 11.7)

There are, however, some important differences in the family status of Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal women. Aboriginal women, for example, are less likely than non-Aboriginal women to be living in husband-wife families. In 1996, 32% of Aboriginal women aged 15 and over, versus 50% of non-Aboriginal women, lived with their husband. In contrast, Aboriginal women were over twice as likely as non-Aboriginal women, 17% compared with 8%, to be living in a common-law relationship.

Aboriginal women are also much more likely to be lone parents than are non-Aboriginal women. In 1996, 18% of Aboriginal women aged 15 and over were heading families

on their own, compared with 8% of non-Aboriginal women. As with the non-Aboriginal population, Aboriginal women were also much more likely than their male counterparts to be lone parents. That year, only 3% of Aboriginal men were lone parents.

As well, lone-parent families headed by Aboriginal women tend to be larger than those headed by their non-Aboriginal counterparts. In 1996, families headed by female Aboriginal lone parents had an average of 2.3 children, compared with only 1.8 children among families with a non-Aboriginal female lone parent.[3]

At the same time, relatively few Aboriginal women live alone. In 1996, 7% of Aboriginal females lived alone, compared with 13% of non-Aboriginal women and 11% of Aboriginal men. Aboriginal women were also somewhat more likely than their non-Aboriginal counterparts to live with members of their extended families.

Health issues

There are a number of illnesses that affect Aboriginal women to a much greater degree than non-Aboriginal women. Diabetes is especially problematic as First Nation and Inuit[5] women were over five times more likely to report this condition than were all Canadian women in 1997. Similarly, First Nation women were almost three times more likely than all Canadian women to report a heart problem, while they were two and a half times more likely to report hypertension. They were also more likely to have either cancer or arthritis/rheumatism.[6]

For decades, tuberculosis has been an illness that has plagued Aboriginal communities. In 1996, Aboriginal women accounted for 16% of the total number of reported new active and relapsed tuberculosis cases among women in Canada, whereas these women made up only 3% of the total female population that year.[7]

Aboriginal women are also more likely to have HIV/AIDS than are other Canadian women. Aboriginal women, for example, made up 18% of all Aboriginal people with this condition, while non-Aboriginal women made up only 6% of the total number of cases among non-Aboriginal adults. As well, 56% of HIV/AIDS cases among Aboriginal women were attributed to injection drug use, compared with 18% of cases among all Canadian women.[8]

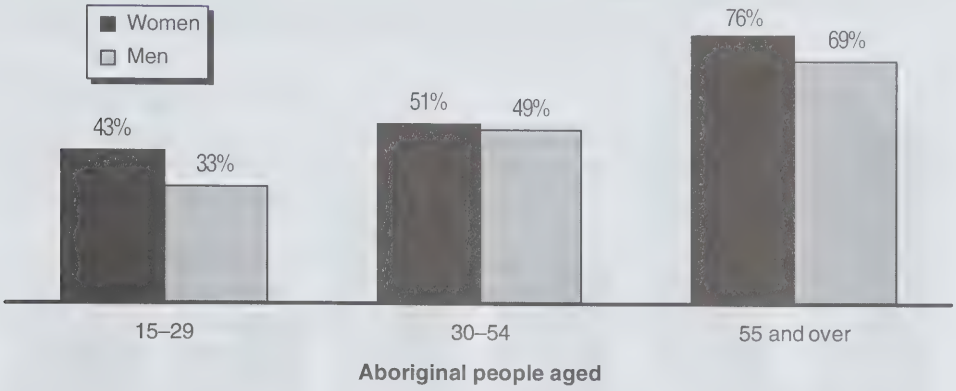
Not surprisingly, given these trends, substantial proportions of Aboriginal women report themselves to be in poor health. In fact, in 1996, over three-quarters (76%) of Aboriginal women aged 55 and over said their health was only fair or poor, as did half (51%) of those aged 30-54 and 43% of those aged 15-29. Indeed, Aboriginal women were more likely to report their health in these terms than were their male counterparts. (Chart 11.8)

Aboriginal women, especially those in younger age groups, are also much more likely than non-Aboriginal women to commit suicide. In the period 1989-1993, there were 35 suicides for every 100,000 Aboriginal women aged 15-24, seven times the figure for non-Aboriginal women in this age range. Suicide rates for Aboriginal women in this age group, however, were still well below those of young Aboriginal men, among whom there were 126 suicides per 100,000 population in this period. (Table 11.8)

At the same time, the suicide rate among Aboriginal women aged 25-34 was over four times that for non-Aboriginal women, while the figure for Aboriginal women aged 35-44 was more than double that for their non-Aboriginal counterparts. As with younger women, though, the incidence of suicide among Aboriginal women in these age groups was well below that of Aboriginal men.

WOMEN IN CANADA Chart 11.8

Percentage of Aboriginal people with poor or fair health, by age, 1997



Source: *First Nations and Inuit Regional Health Survey National Report, 1999.*

Education

Aboriginal women have made gains in their educational attainment in recent years; however, large gaps still exist between the education levels of Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal women. In 1996, over half (54%) of Aboriginal women[9] had not completed their secondary education, compared to 36% non-Aboriginal women. In contrast, only 25% of all Aboriginal women had completed some type of postsecondary education, versus 39% of non-Aboriginal women. (Table 11.9)

There is a particularly large gap between the shares of Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal women with university degrees. In 1996, only 5% of the out-of-school female Aboriginal population had a university degree, compared with 14% of their non-Aboriginal counterparts. Aboriginal women, though, were slightly more likely to have a university degree than Aboriginal men, only 3% of whom had completed university.

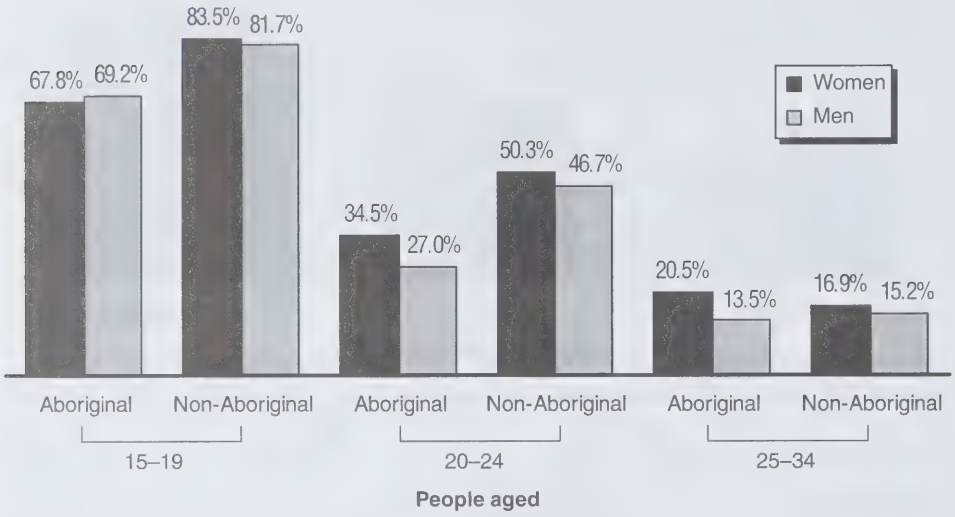
Young Aboriginal women are also less likely than other young Canadian women to attend school. In 1996, 68% of Aboriginal women aged 15-19 were attending school on either a full or part-time basis, compared with 84% of their non-Aboriginal counterparts. There was a similar story among those aged 20-24, among whom 35% of Aboriginal women, versus 50% of non-Aboriginal women, were in school. (Chart 11.9)

Aboriginal women, however, are more likely than their non-Aboriginal counterparts to return to school at later ages to complete their education. In 1996, for example, 21% of Aboriginal women aged 25-34 were attending school either full- or part-time, whereas only 17% of non-Aboriginal women in this age range were doing so.

There are also differences in the educational attainment of Aboriginal women depending on where they live. As of 1996, 34% of Aboriginal women aged 25 and over living on reserve had some postsecondary education experience, compared with 46% of those living in a census metropolitan area and 41% of those in other urban areas. This could be due, in part, to the fact that there are fewer opportunities to pursue higher education on reserve. Also, as job prospects are usually poor on reserve, those with higher levels of schooling may feel obliged to leave their communities to secure employment. (Chart 11.10)

WOMEN IN CANADA Chart 11.9

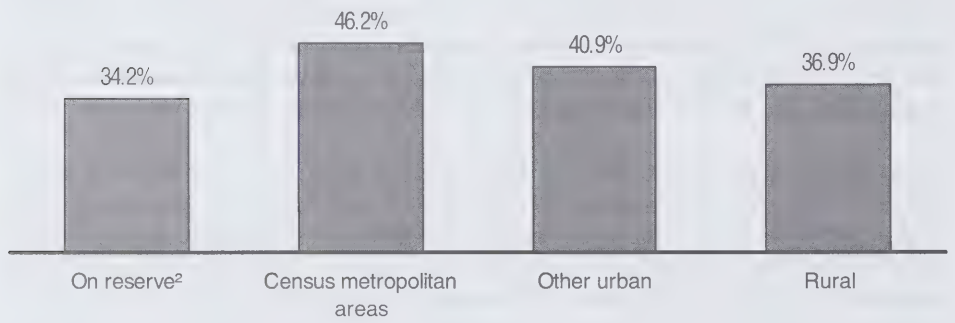
Percentage of Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal people attending school,[1] by age, 1996



[1] *Includes full- and part-time school attendance.*
Source: *Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Chart 11.10

Percentage of Aboriginal women aged 25 and over with some postsecondary education,[1] by area of residence, 1996



[1] *Includes only the population not attending school. Data are for those with both complete and incomplete postsecondary education.*
[2] *Includes reserves in urban areas. Does not include an estimated 44,000 people living in 77 incompletely enumerated Indian reserves and settlements.*
Source: *Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.*

Participation in paid work activity

Aboriginal women are much less likely than their non-Aboriginal counterparts to be part of the paid workforce in Canada. In 1996, 41% of Aboriginal women aged 15 and over were employed, compared with 53% of their non-Aboriginal counterparts. Aboriginal women were also less likely to be employed than Aboriginal men, 48% of whom had jobs that year. (Table 11.10)

As with the overall population, Aboriginal women aged 25-44 have higher employment rates than both their younger and older counterparts. In 1996, 51% of Aboriginal women aged 25-44 were employed, compared with 43% of those aged 45-64 and 30% of those aged 15-24. At all ages, however, Aboriginal women were less likely to be employed than either Aboriginal men or non-Aboriginal women.

Part-time employment

As with the rest of the population, a large proportion of Aboriginal women with jobs work part-time. In 1996, 30% of Aboriginal women with jobs worked part-time, about the same figure as for non-Aboriginal women. (Chart 11.11)

Also, as with the overall population, Aboriginal women are more likely than Aboriginal men to work part-time. In 1996, 30% of employed Aboriginal women, versus 18% of their male counterparts, worked part-time.

Occupation

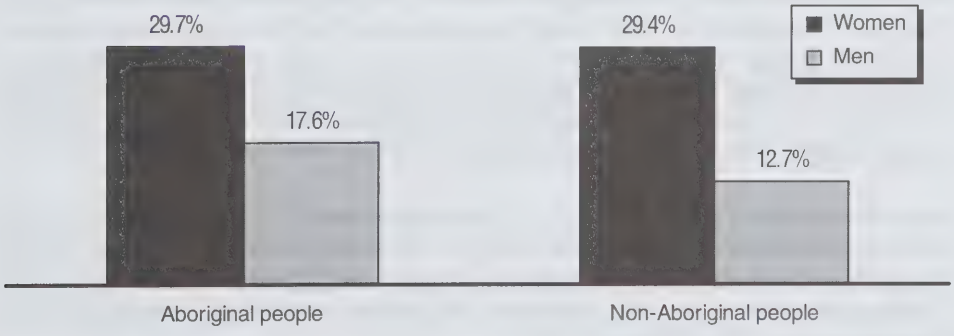
Aboriginal women are heavily concentrated in low-paying occupations traditionally held by women. Of all Aboriginal women who were employed at some point in 1995, 64% worked in either sales and service (40%) or clerical and administrative (23%) jobs. In fact, Aboriginal women were more than twice as likely to work in these occupations as Aboriginal men, just 25% of whom were employed in sales, service, or clerical jobs. The share of Aboriginal women in sales, service, and clerical jobs, though, was only slightly higher than the figure for non-Aboriginal women, 60% of whom were employed in these areas. (Table 11.11)

Aboriginal women are about as likely as both their non-Aboriginal counterparts and Aboriginal men to be employed in management positions. In 1996, 5% of Aboriginal women and 6% of both non-Aboriginal women and Aboriginal men had managerial positions.

At the same time, Aboriginal women were less likely to be employed in professional occupations than non-Aboriginal women. In 1996, 22% of employed Aboriginal women were in these types of positions, compared with 25% of non-Aboriginal women. Aboriginal women, though, were almost twice as likely as Aboriginal men to be employed as professionals that year: 22% versus 12%.

WOMEN IN CANADA Chart 11.11

Percentage of employed Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal people working part-time, 1996



Source: *Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.*

Unemployment

Unemployment rates continue to be high among Aboriginal women. In 1996, one in five (21%) female Aboriginal labour force participants was unemployed, more than double the rate for non-Aboriginal women, 10% of whom were unemployed that year. The unemployment rate among Aboriginal women, though, was lower than that experienced by Aboriginal men (27%). (Table 11.12)

When looking at the unemployment rate, however, it is important to realize that it does not always reflect the complex reality of the situation of Aboriginal people, especially those living on reserve. It may not always reflect work that is carried out for which no payment is received. Work of this type is common in many Aboriginal communities where large amounts of time are often spent fishing, trapping, hunting, sewing, and caring for children of friends and family members. Also, there is much seasonal work in many Aboriginal communities. Job opportunities on many reserves are limited. In addition, people in these communities who are able and willing to work may not do so because of the lack of employment opportunities on reserve.

As with the overall population, unemployment rates among Aboriginal women are highest for young adults. In 1996, 29% of female Aboriginal labour force participants aged 15-24 were unemployed, compared with 20% of those aged 25-44 and 15% of those aged 45-64. In each group, however, unemployment rates among Aboriginal women were higher than they were for non-Aboriginal women, while they were lower than those for Aboriginal men.

Among Aboriginal women, those living in small and mid-sized urban centres are the most likely to be unemployed, although unemployment rates tend to be high in all areas. In 1996, 23% of female Aboriginal labour force participants in small and mid-sized urban centres were unemployed, as were 22% of those that lived on reserves, 20% of those living in census metropolitan areas, and 19% of those living in rural non-reserve locales.[3]

Unemployment rates are also very high for Aboriginal women who are lone parents. In 1996, 29% of these women were unemployed, compared with 16% of non-Aboriginal female lone parents.[3]

Incomes of Aboriginal women

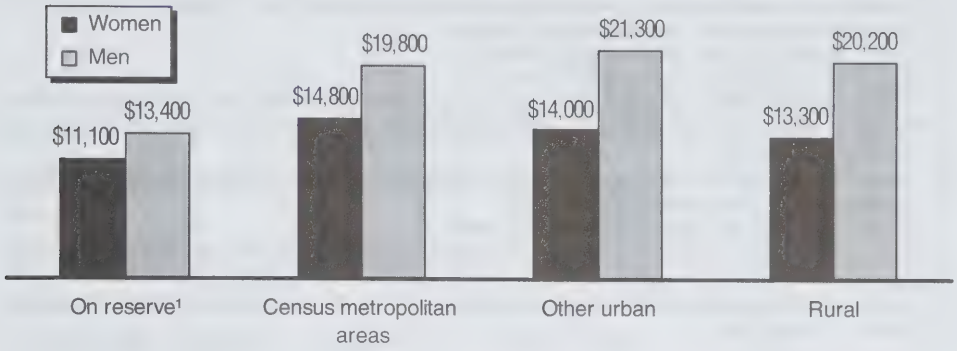
Aboriginal women have, on average, very low incomes. In 1996, these women had an average income from all sources of $13,300, over $6,000 less than the figure for non-Aboriginal women ($19,350) and $5,000 less than that for Aboriginal men ($18,200). (Table 11.13)

As with other variables, the average income of Aboriginal women varies depending on their area of residence. In 1996, those living on reserve had the lowest average incomes among Aboriginal women ($11,100), while those in census metropolitan areas had the highest incomes ($14,800). Wherever their place of residence, however, the incomes of Aboriginal women were less than those of Aboriginal men. This was particularly the case among the off-reserve population. (Chart 11.12)

As with women in the overall population, the largest share of the income of Aboriginal women comes from employment sources. In 1996, 64% of all the income of Aboriginal women came from either wages and salaries or net income from self-employment. This figure, however was less than those for both non-Aboriginal women (70%) and Aboriginal men (75%). (Table 11.13)

WOMEN IN CANADA Chart 11.12

Average income of Aboriginal women and men, by area of residence, 1996



[1] *Includes reserves in urban areas. Does not include an estimated 44,000 people living in 77 incompletely enumerated Indian reserves and settlements.*

Source: *Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.*

In contrast, Aboriginal women receive a relatively large share of their personal income from government transfer payments. In 1996, 32% of all the income received by these women came from transfer payments, compared with just 18% of that of non-Aboriginal women and 21% of that of Aboriginal men.

Low income among Aboriginal women

A large percentage of Aboriginal women have low incomes. In 1996, 43% of Aboriginal women aged 15 and over had incomes below Statistics Canada's Low Income Cut-offs,[10] compared with 35% of Aboriginal men and 20% of non-Aboriginal women. (Table 11.14)

Young Aboriginal women are especially likely to live in a low-income situation. In 1996, 50% of Aboriginal women aged 15-24, as well as almost half of those aged 25-34 (48%), were classified as having low incomes, whereas figures in other age groups were 40% or below. In all age groups, however, Aboriginal women had higher rates of low income than either non-Aboriginal women or Aboriginal men.

The low-income situation of Aboriginal lone mothers is even more serious. Among this group, 73% lived below the low-income cut-offs in 1996. This was substantially worse than the 45% figure for families headed by non-Aboriginal female lone parents.[3]

Heather Tait is a senior analyst with the Housing Family and Social Statistics Division of Statistics Canada. The author wishes to extend special thanks to **Tracey Chevrier** of the Native Women's Association of Canada for her assistance and insights.

[1] *The Aboriginal population includes those who identified with an Aboriginal group, either North American Indian, Métis or Inuit, on the 1996 Census. The Aboriginal population also includes people who did not identify with an Aboriginal group, but who were Registered Indians and/or First Nation (Band) members. Also note that, in 1996, 77 Indian reserves and settlements did not take part in the census and the estimated 44,000 people living in these communities are not included in the data in this chapter.*

[2] *Figures do not sum to 100 because the remaining women did not identify with an Aboriginal group but were Registered Indians and/or First Nation (Band) members.*

[3] *Source: Statistics Canada, 1996 Census of Canada.*

[4] *Source: Statistics Canada, Demography Division.*

[5] *For the purposes of the First Nations and Inuit Regional Health Survey, the term "First Nations" includes Aboriginal people residing on selected reserves. A number of Inuit communities in Quebec and Labrador also took part in the survey.*

[6] *Source: First Nations and Inuit Regional Health Survey National Steering Committee, "First Nations and Inuit Regional Health Survey; National Report, 1999."*

[7] *Source: Health Canada,* Tuberculosis in Canada*, 1996.*

[8] *Source: Health Canada,* HIV/AIDS Epi Update, *"HIV and AIDS among Aboriginal People in Canada", May 1999.*

[9] *Unless stated otherwise, the data in this section refer only to those not attending school.*

[10] *It is important to note that those residing on reserves and in the Territories are not included in these Low Income Cut-off figures.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 11.1

Aboriginal population, by group, 1996

	Women		Men		Women as a % of the total Aboriginal group	Aboriginal women as a % of the total female population in Canada
	000s	%	000s	%		
North American Indian	270.7	66.3	258.3	66.1	51.2	1.9
Métis	102.7	25.2	101.4	26.0	50.3	0.7
Inuit	20.0	4.9	20.2	5.2	49.8	0.1
Other[1]	11.4	2.8	7.8	2.0	59.7	0.1
Multiple Aboriginal	3.2	0.8	3.2	0.8	50.5	--
Total Aboriginal population	**408.1**	**100.0**	**390.9**	**100.0**	**51.1**	**2.8**

[1] *Includes those who do not consider themselves an Aboriginal person but who are Registered Indian and/or First Nation (Band) members.*

Source: *Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 11.2

Aboriginal population, by province and territory, 1996

	Women		Men		Women as a % of the total Aboriginal population group in region	Aboriginal women as a % of the total female population in region
	Number	%	Number	%		
Newfoundland	7,045	1.7	7,160	1.8	49.6	2.6
Prince Edward Island	430	0.1	515	0.1	45.3	0.6
Nova Scotia	6,420	1.6	5,960	1.5	51.9	1.4
New Brunswick	5,220	1.3	5,030	1.3	50.9	1.4
Quebec	36,025	8.8	35,390	9.1	50.4	1.0
Ontario	73,725	18.1	67,800	17.3	52.1	1.4
Manitoba	65,065	15.9	63,620	16.3	50.6	11.7
Saskatchewan	56,775	13.9	54,465	13.9	51.0	11.5
Alberta	63,150	15.4	59,690	15.3	51.4	4.7
British Columbia	71,455	17.5	68,205	17.4	51.2	3.8
Yukon	3,210	0.8	2,965	0.8	52.0	21.6
Northwest Territories	9,475	2.3	9,525	2.4	49.9	49.6
Nunavut	10,145	2.4	10,545	2.7	49.0	86.1
Canada	408,135	100.0	390,870	100.0	51.1	2.8

Source: *Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 11.3

Distribution of Aboriginal women, by group and province or territory, 1996

	North American Indian	Métis	Inuit	Total Aboriginal population[1]
		%		
Newfoundland	0.8	2.1	10.3	1.7
Prince Edward Island	0.1	--	--	0.1
Nova Scotia	2.1	0.4	0.6	1.6
New Brunswick	1.6	0.4	0.3	1.3
Quebec	8.4	7.6	20.3	8.8
Ontario	21.7	10.3	2.9	18.1
Manitoba	15.1	22.1	0.8	15.9
Saskatchewan	13.7	17.7	0.4	13.9
Alberta	13.2	24.4	1.8	15.4
British Columbia	20.2	12.8	2.2	17.5
Yukon	1.0	0.3	0.3	0.8
Northwest Territories	2.0	1.7	10.1	2.3
Nunavut	--	--	50.1	2.4
Canada	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Total population	**270,700**	**102,685**	**20,040**	**408,140**

[1] *Includes multiple Aboriginal responses, as well as those who do not consider themselves an Aboriginal person but who are Registered Indian and/or First Nation (Band) members.*

Source: *Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 11.4

Area of residence of Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal people, 1996

	Aboriginal people[1]		Non-Aboriginal people	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
		%		
On reserve[2]	27.6	30.6	0.1	0.1
Off reserve				
Census metropolitan areas	28.8	26.5	59.4	58.2
Other urban areas	22.5	21.0	19.9	19.4
Total urban areas	51.3	47.5	79.3	77.6
Rural	21.1	21.9	20.6	22.3
Total off reserve	72.4	69.4	99.9	99.9
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**

[1] *Includes those who do not consider themselves an Aboriginal person but who are Registered Indian and/or First Nation (Band) members.*

[2] *Includes reserves in urban areas. Does not include an estimated 44,000 people living in incompletely enumerated Indian reserves and settlements.*

Source: *Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 11.5

Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal people, by age, 1996

	Aboriginal people		Non-Aboriginal people	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
	%			
People aged				
Under 15	33.6	36.7	19.4	21.1
15-24	17.8	18.2	12.9	13.8
25-44	31.8	29.1	32.7	32.8
45-64	13.1	12.6	21.8	22.0
65 and over	3.8	3.3	13.1	10.3
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
Total population (000s)	**408.1**	**390.9**	**14,073.1**	**13,656.0**

Source: *Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 11.6

Home language of Aboriginal people, by group, 1996

	Home language					
	English	French	Aboriginal language	Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal	Other	Total
	%					
North American Indian						
Women	76.1	3.1	16.4	4.0	0.3	100.0
Men	74.0	3.1	18.4	4.2	0.4	100.0
Métis						
Women	87.5	8.6	2.4	0.9	0.6	100.0
Men	87.2	8.7	2.7	0.9	0.6	100.0
Inuit						
Women	42.0	0.5	53.7	3.5	0.3	100.0
Men	39.2	0.6	57.0	3.0	0.2	100.0
Total Aboriginal population[1]						
Women	77.6	4.6	14.2	3.2	0.4	100.0
Men	75.9	4.6	15.9	3.2	0.4	100.0

[1] *Includes multiple Aboriginal responses, as well as those who do not consider themselves an Aboriginal person but who are Registered Indian and/or First Nation (Band) members.*

Source: *Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 11.7

Family status of Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal people aged 15 and over, 1996

	Aboriginal people		Non-Aboriginal people	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
		%		
Living with family				
With husband or wife	31.7	31.0	50.4	53.3
With common-law partner	17.3	16.9	7.7	8.2
Lone parent	17.9	3.2	8.0	1.7
Child living with parents	15.9	24.4	13.6	18.4
Living with extended family members	5.2	7.1	3.6	2.9
Total living with family	88.0	82.6	83.4	84.4
Not living with family				
Living alone	7.4	10.6	13.0	10.4
Living with non-relatives	4.7	6.9	3.6	5.2
Total not living with family	12.0	17.4	16.6	15.5
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
Total population (000s)	**269.8**	**244.8**	**11,282.1**	**10,709.7**

Source: *Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 11.8

Suicide rates among the Registered Indian and total Canadian populations in selected age groups, 1989-1993

	Registered Indians		All Canadians	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
		Suicides per 100,000 population		
Age groups				
15-24	35	126	5	24
25-34	28	93	6	27
35-44	19	50	8	26

Source: *Health Canada, Health Programs Analysis, First Nations and Inuit Health Programs.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 11.9

Educational attainment of Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal people aged 15 and over, 1996[1]

	Aboriginal people		Non-Aboriginal people	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
	%			
Educational attainment				
Less than Grade 9	23.4	23.8	14.5	13.4
Some secondary school	30.6	31.9	21.0	20.8
High school graduate	9.4	9.2	17.1	13.8
Some postsecondary	11.1	9.7	8.7	8.4
Postsecondary certificate/diploma[2]	20.5	22.0	24.2	26.8
University degree	4.9	3.4	14.4	16.7
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
Total population (000s)	**206.9**	**197.1**	**9,318.9**	**8,936.9**

1 Includes only the population not attending school.
2 Includes trades certificate.
Source: *Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 11.10

Percentage of Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal people employed, by age, 1996

	Aboriginal people		Non-Aboriginal people	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
	%			
People aged				
15-24	29.7	32.7	50.4	52.0
25-44	50.7	59.8	71.8	83.5
45-64	43.0	52.7	55.9	72.4
65 and over	5.4	10.0	4.3	12.3
Total aged 15 and over	**41.0**	**48.0**	**53.1**	**65.6**

Source: *Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.*

Table 11.11

Occupational distribution of Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal people, 1996[1]

	Aboriginal people		Non-Aboriginal people	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
	%			
Managerial				
Senior management	1.0	1.7	0.4	1.5
Other management	4.2	4.4	5.9	10.1
Total management	5.1	6.2	6.4	11.6
Professional				
Business and finance professionals	0.8	0.5	1.7	1.9
Natural sciences/engineering/mathematics	0.9	3.4	2.0	7.7
Teaching	4.8	1.6	5.5	2.9
Other social sciences/education/government	7.5	3.6	3.4	2.2
Doctors/dentists/other health professionals	0.2	0.1	1.1	1.0
Nursing/therapy/other health-related[2]	5.4	0.7	7.8	1.0
Artistic/cultural/recreational and sports	2.8	2.2	3.2	2.3
Total professional	22.4	12.1	24.7	19.0
Clerical and administrative	23.4	5.4	28.4	8.0
Sales and service	40.1	19.8	31.4	20.4
Primary industry	2.4	13.4	2.2	6.7
Trades, transport and equipment operators	3.2	34.3	1.8	24.2
Processing, manufacturing and utilities	3.4	8.7	4.9	9.9
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
Total employed (000s)	**118.5**	**141.1**	**6,215.2**	**7,433.2**

[1] *Includes people aged 15 and over who worked either full-time or part-time in 1995 or 1996.*
[2] *Includes nurses, nursing assistants, technical and support occupations in health.*

Source: *Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 11.12

Unemployment rates of Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal people, by age, 1996

	Aboriginal people		Non-Aboriginal people	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
	%			
People aged				
15-24	29.2	34.7	16.6	17.9
25-44	20.1	25.7	8.9	9.0
45-64	15.1	20.7	7.2	7.7
65 and over	11.2	13.1	7.1	5.1
Total aged 15 and over	**21.1**	**26.5**	**9.7**	**9.9**

Source: *Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 11.13

Composition of personal income[1] of Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal people, 1995

	Aboriginal people		Non-Aboriginal people	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
	%			
Wages and salaries	61.6	71.4	66.6	71.8
Net income from self-employment	2.1	3.9	3.6	6.8
Investment income	0.9	1.0	6.2	4.0
Government transfer payments	32.2	21.4	17.9	11.3
Other income	3.3	2.4	5.7	6.2
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
Total income ($)	**13,305**	**18,221**	**19,348**	**31,404**

[1] *Includes people aged 15 and over with income.*
Source: *Statistics Canada, 1996 Census of Canada.*

 Table 11.14

Incidence of low income[1] among Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal people, by age, 1995

	Aboriginal people		Non-Aboriginal people	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
		%		
People aged				
15-24	49.8	40.6	25.6	21.4
25-34	47.6	36.7	21.4	18.2
35-44	37.2	31.0	17.3	15.4
45-54	32.8	28.9	14.4	13.1
55-64	39.1	35.4	19.2	16.4
65 and over	35.8	27.1	23.8	13.2
Total aged 15 and over	**42.7**	**35.1**	**20.3**	**16.4**

[1] *Includes people with incomes below Statistics Canada's Low Income Cut-offs. For a definition see Chapter 6. It should be noted that the calculations of the Low Income Cut-offs exclude people living on Indian reserves and in the territories.*

Source: *Statistics Canada, 1996 Census of Canada.*

CHAPTER 12

Senior Women

by Colin Lindsay

A rapidly growing population

Women aged 65 and over constitute one of the fastest growing segments of the female population in Canada.[1] In 1999, there were an estimated 2.2 million senior women, up 60% from 1.4 million in 1981. In contrast, the number of women in age ranges under age 65 grew by only 20% in the same period. (Table 12.1)

As a result of these trends, the share of the overall female population accounted for by senior women has risen sharply in the last several decades. In 1999, women aged 65 and over made up 14% of the total female population, up from 9% in 1971 and just 5% in 1921.

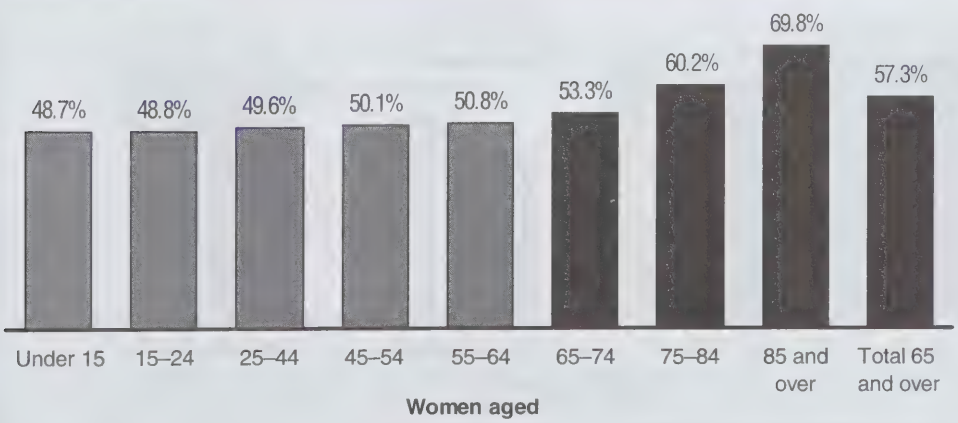
The female population aged 65 and over is also expected to grow even more rapidly during the next several decades, particularly once women born during the Baby Boom years from 1946 to 1965 begin turning age 65 early in the second decade of the new century. Statistics Canada has projected[2] that, by 2011, 16% of all Canadian women will be aged 65 and over, and that, by 2026, 23% of the female population will be seniors.

Senior women in the majority

The senior population in Canada is predominantly female. In 1999, women represented 57% of all Canadians aged 65 and over, whereas they made up just over half (51%) of those aged 55-64 and 50% or less of those in age groups under age 55. (Chart 12.1)

WOMEN IN CANADA Chart 12.1

Women as a percentage of the population, by age, 1999



Source: *Statistics Canada, Demography Division.*

Women account for even larger shares of the older segments of the senior population. In 1999, women made up 70% of all persons aged 85 and over and 60% of those aged 75-84, compared with 53% of people aged 65-74.

Increasing life expectancy

The predominance of women in the ranks of Canadian seniors has resulted, in large part, because the life expectancy of senior women has risen more rapidly than that of senior men during most of this century. In 1996, a 65-year-old woman could expect to live, on average, another 20.2 years, almost 7 years longer than the figure in 1921. In contrast, the life expectancy of 65-year-old men rose only 3 years in the same period. As a result, the life expectancy of a 65-year-old woman in 1996 was 4 years greater than that of her male counterpart: 20.2 years versus 16.3 years. (Table 12.2)

All the gains in the life expectancy of senior women relative to that of senior men, however, occurred prior to 1981. Indeed, this trend has reversed somewhat in the last decade and a half. Between 1981 and 1991, for example, the life expectancy of senior women and men both increased by about a year, while in the 1991 to 1996 period, the average remaining life expectancy of a 65-year-old woman rose by just 0.2 of a year, compared with an increase of about a half a year for men aged 65.

As a result, the share of the senior population accounted for by women has fallen slightly in recent years and is expected to dip somewhat further in the next couple of decades. Women, though, are still projected to make up 55% of all seniors in 2026. (See Chapter 1, Table 1.1)

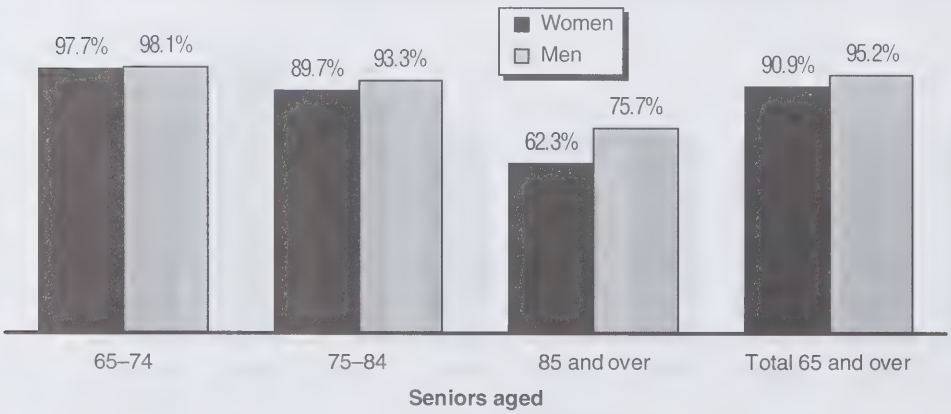
Most senior women live in a private household

The vast majority of senior women live at home in a private household. In 1996, 91% of all women aged 65 and over lived in a private household, although this was less than the figure for their male counterparts, 95% of whom lived at home that year. (Chart 12.2)

There is a particularly wide gap between the proportion of senior women and men living in a private household among those in older age ranges. In 1996, only 62% of women aged 85 and over resided in a private household, compared with 76% of their

WOMEN IN CANADA Chart 12.2

Percentage of seniors living in a private household, 1996



Source: *Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.*

male counterparts. In contrast, the share of women aged 75-84 living at home (90%) was just slightly below the figure for men in this age range (93%), while there was almost no difference in this figure among those aged 65-74. That year, 98% of both women and men in this age group lived at home.

While most senior women live in a private household, a substantial number live in an institution. In 1996, almost 200,000 women aged 65 and over, 9% of all senior women in Canada, lived in an institution. As well, senior women are somewhat more likely to live in an institution than their male contemporaries, only 5% of whom were residents of an institution that year. (Table 12.3)

Senior women in older age ranges are the most likely to live in an institution. In 1996, 38% of women aged 85 and over, compared with 24% of men in this age range, 10% of women aged 75-84, and 2% of both women and men aged 65-74, were in an institution.

Most senior women in institutions reside in special care homes for the elderly and chronically ill. In 1996, 8% of all women aged 65 and over lived in one of these institutions, while small percentages resided in hospitals and religious institutions.

The health of senior women living in institutions

Not surprisingly, most senior women living in an institution[3] have health problems. In 1997, 97% of these women had a chronic condition as diagnosed by a health professional. That year, 51% of these women suffered from urinary incontinence and 50% had arthritis or rheumatism, while 33% had cataracts, 26% had a chronic heart condition, another 26% had osteoporosis or brittle bones, 25% had high blood pressure, 21% suffered from the effects of a stroke, 14% had diabetes, 11% had problems with their thyroid, 8% had chronic bronchitis, emphysema or other lung condition, and 7% suffered from partial or complete paralysis.

As well, 84% of senior women living in an institution in 1997 reported some level of activity restriction because of a long-term health condition. That year, 78% of these women needed help with personal care activities such as bathing, dressing, and eating, while around half needed help getting in and out of bed (53%), getting in and out of a chair (50%), or moving about the facility (51%).

Many senior women living in an institution have memory problems. In 1997, 70% had at least some difficulty remembering things and 23% were unable to remember anything at all.

In addition, 31% of all women aged 65 and over in an institution could not see well enough to read, even with corrective lenses. At the same time, about a third of these senior women had hearing problems (34%).

Senior women in institutions, though, see a doctor regularly. In 1997, 95% saw a doctor at least once a year. That year, 23% saw a doctor at least once a week and 36% saw one at least once a month. As well, 88% saw a nurse at least once a week, while 11% saw a therapist at least once a week and 4% saw a therapist at least once a month.

Almost all institutionalized senior women take some form of medication. In 1997, 97% of these women had taken at least one form of medication in the two days prior to the survey. Indeed, 90% had taken two or more medications in the two days prior to the survey and 46% had taken more than five different types of medication in this period.

Most live with family

The majority of senior women living in a private household live with their family, either as a family head or spouse, or with their extended family, such as the family of a daughter or son. In 1996, 60% of all women aged 65 and over lived with family members: 43% were living with their husband or wife, while a small percentage (1%) were living with their common-law partner and 6% were lone parents. In addition, close to 200,000 senior women, 10% of the total, lived with members of their extended family. (Table 12.4)

The family status of senior women differs significantly from that of senior men. In 1996, just 43% of senior women, versus 75% of senior men, were living with their spouse. Senior women, on the other hand, were more likely than senior men to be either a lone parent (6% versus 2%) or to be living with members of their extended family (10% versus 3%).

While most senior women live with their family, a substantial number live alone. In 1996, over 700,000 women aged 65 and over, 38% of all senior women, were living on their own. In contrast, only 16% of men aged 65 and over lived alone.

As well, the likelihood that senior women live alone rises with age. In 1996, well over half (58%) of women aged 85 and over, and almost half (49%) of those aged 75-84, lived alone. This compared with around 30% or less of both women aged 65-74 and senior men of all ages.

Senior women in older age ranges, however, are also the most likely to live with their extended family. In 1996, 22% of women aged 85 and over lived with members of their extended family, compared with 12% of those aged 75-84 and 8% of women aged 65-74.

Death rates among senior women down

Gains in life expectancy among senior women reflect long-term declines in death rates in this group. Between 1980 and 1996, the age-standardized[4] death rate among women aged 65 and over fell 12%, from just over 4,100 deaths per 100,000 senior women to 3,600. (Table 12.5)

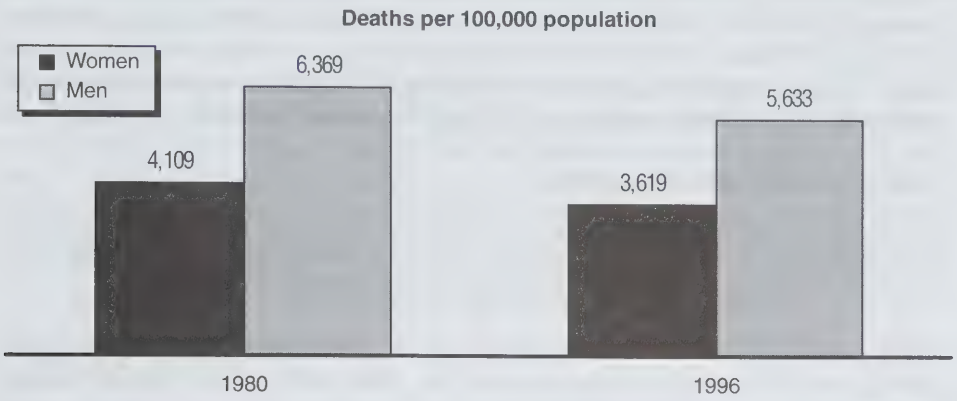
This decline in the age-standardized death rate among senior women was almost exactly the same as that for senior men. Death rates among senior women, however, are considerably lower than they are among senior men. In 1996, there were around 3,600 deaths for every 100,000 women aged 65 and over, compared with over 5,600 per 100,000 senior men. (Chart 12.3)

Heart disease and cancer account for over half the deaths of senior women in Canada. In 1996, 30% of all deaths of women aged 65 and over were attributed to heart disease and 25% were from cancer. Of the remaining deaths of senior women, 10% were from each of strokes and respiratory diseases, while 26% were attributed to all other diseases and conditions combined. (Table 12.5)

There have, however, been considerable differences in the direction of the long-term trends in the main causes of death among senior women. The age-standardized death rate due to heart disease among these women, for example, was 35% lower in 1996 than in 1980, whereas the figure for cancer rose 12% in the same period.

In fact, the death rate from cancer among senior women has risen somewhat faster than that of their male counterparts in the past decade and a half. Between 1980 and 1996, the age-standardized death rate from cancer among senior women rose 12%,

Age-standardized[1] death rates among seniors, 1980 and 1996



[1] *Figures are age-standardized to the 1991 population.*
Source: *Statistics Canada, Health Statistics Division.*

compared with a 9% increase among senior men. The cancer death rate among senior women, however, is still less than 60% of that of senior men.

Much of the increase in the overall cancer death rate among senior women is accounted for by increases in deaths from lung cancer. Indeed, death rates due to lung cancer for women in all age groups over age 60 in 1998[5] were more than double the figures in 1980. (Table 12.6)

Senior women, though, are still considerably less likely than their male counterparts to die from lung cancer. The estimated death rate from lung cancer among women aged 80 and over in 1998 was less than a third the figure for men in this age range, while estimated rates for women aged 60-69 and 70-79 were both around half those of their male contemporaries.

There have also been increases in death rates from breast cancer among senior women aged 70 and over in the past two decades. In fact, breast cancer was the leading cause of cancer deaths among women aged 80 and over in 1998.

The perceived health of senior women

Most senior women living at home describe their general health in positive terms. In 1997, 78% said their health was either good (39%), very good (28%), or excellent (12%), while 16% reported their health was fair and only 5% described it as poor. (Table 12.7)

Among senior women, those in older age ranges are the most likely to rate their overall health in negative terms. In 1997, 11% of women aged 85 and over, compared with 6% of women aged 75-84 and 4% of those aged 65-74, reported that their health was poor. Most women aged 85 and over, however, described their health as either good, very good, or excellent that year.

Seniors with chronic health conditions

While most senior women living at home report their overall health as relatively good, many have a chronic health condition as diagnosed by a health professional. In 1997, 85% of these women had such a problem, compared with 78% of senior men. (Table 12.8)

Arthritis and rheumatism are the most common chronic health problems reported by senior women. In 1997, 49% of women aged 65 and over living at home had been diagnosed by a health professional with one of these problems, while 36% had high blood pressure, 28% had food or other allergies, 18% had back problems, 17% had cataracts, 14% had chronic heart problems, and 9% had diabetes. At the same time, smaller percentages of these women reported having problems with urinary incontinence (7%), asthma (6%), sinusitis (6%), chronic bronchitis or emphysema (5%), glaucoma (5%), migraine headaches (5%), ulcers (4%), or the effects of a stroke (3%).

Senior women with disabilities

One in four senior women living at home has a long-term disability. In 1997, 24% of these women had such a condition. This, however, was slightly below the figure for senior men, 26% of whom had a disability that year. (Table 12.9)

Not surprisingly, the proportion of senior women with a long-term disability rises sharply with age. In 1997, 44% of women aged 85 and over living at home had a disability, versus 27% of those aged 75-84 and 20% of those aged 65-74. At all ages, though, senior women were slightly less likely than their male counterparts to have a disability.

Senior women experiencing chronic pain

A substantial number of senior women also report they suffer from chronic pain or discomfort. In 1997, one in four senior women (26%) living at home reported they experienced chronic pain or discomfort, compared with 23% of senior men. (Table 12.10)

Again, senior women in older age brackets are more likely than their younger counterparts to experience chronic pain or discomfort. In 1997, 37% of women aged 85 and over living at home suffered from chronic pain, compared with 27% of those aged 75-84 and 24% of those aged 65-74.

One result of this situation is that many senior women use pain relievers. In 1997, 66% of all women aged 65 and over living in a private household used a pain reliever at least once in the month preceding the survey. Indeed, senior women were more likely than senior men to use pain relievers in this period. (Table 12.13)

Senior women suffering injuries

Senior women are generally less likely than those in younger age groups to suffer injuries serious enough to limit normal activities. In 1997, 7% of all women aged 65 and over living at home suffered such an injury, compared with 10% of women aged 55-64 and 8% of those between the ages of 25 and 54. Senior women, though, were more likely than their male counterparts to suffer an injury: 7% versus 4%. (Table 12.11)

Again, those in older age ranges are the most likely senior women to suffer an injury. In 1997, 10% of women aged 85 and over and 8% of those aged 75-84 were injured seriously enough to limit their normal activities, compared with 6% of those aged 65-74.

Senior women taking medication

The majority of senior women take some form of prescription or over-the-counter medication. In 1997, 86% of all women aged 65 and over living at home took some form of medication in the two days prior to the survey. Indeed, 60% had taken two or more medications in this period. (Table 12.12)

Among senior women, those in older age groups are generally more likely than their younger counterparts to take more than one medication. Of senior women living at home in 1997, 68% of those aged 85 and over and 65% of those aged 75-84, versus 56% of those aged 65-74, had taken more than one type of medication in the two days prior to the survey.

Pain relievers are the medication most often taken by senior women. In 1997, 66% of those living in a private household had used this type of medication at least once in the month preceding the survey, while 36% had used a medication for blood pressure and 17% had taken another type of heart medication. At the same time, 13% of all senior women used diuretics or water pills, 12% used a thyroid medication, 11% took some kind of stomach remedy, 10% used a cough or cold medication, and 9% used sleeping pills, while smaller percentages used penicillin or other antibiotics (6%), diabetes pills (6%), tranquilizers (6%), asthma medication (5%), or anti-depressants (5%). As well, 10% of senior women took hormones for menopause or other age-related conditions such as osteoporosis. (Table 12.13)

Educational attainment of senior women

Like their male counterparts, senior women have relatively low levels of formal education. As of 1996, the majority of senior women, over six out of 10, had never completed high school: 27% had attended, but had not graduated from high school, while 37% had less than a Grade 9 education. In contrast, only 6% of all women aged 65 and over were university graduates, while 16% had some other form of postsecondary training. (Table 12.14)

Senior women are somewhat less likely than senior men to be university graduates. In 1996, 6% of women aged 65 and over, versus 11% of senior men, had completed a university program. The difference between the proportions of senior women and men with university degrees, however, will likely decline in the future as this gap is smaller among women and men in age groups under age 65; indeed, women make up the majority of all university students in Canada today.

Low literacy levels

Partly as a result of their relative lack of formal education experience, many senior women have difficulty reading. In 1994, over half of all women aged 66 and over performed at the lowest level on the prose scale in the International Adult Literacy Survey. That year, 53%, about the same figure as for senior men, were only able to perform simple reading tasks, such as locating one piece of information in a text.[6]

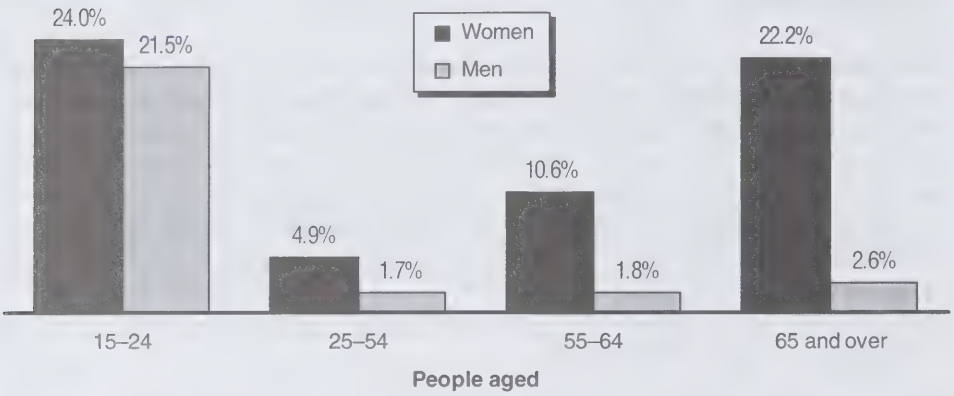
Few senior women employed

Only a small proportion of senior women are part of the paid workforce. In 1999, just 3% of women aged 65 and over had paying jobs, compared with 10% of senior men.[7]

In fact, a substantial proportion of senior women have never been part of the paid workforce. As of 1999, 22% of all women aged 65 and over, compared with just 3% of men in this age range, had never worked outside the home. (Chart 12.4)

This situation will change in the future, however, because women in younger age groups are currently much more likely to be part of the paid workforce than were their senior counterparts. Indeed, by 1999, only 11% of women aged 55-64, and just 5% of those aged 25-54, had never been employed outside the home.

Percentage of the population never employed, 1999



Source: *Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey.*

More than half of senior women who do work outside the home are employed part-time. In 1999, 53% of women aged 65 and over who participated in the paid workforce worked part-time, compared with 34% of employed senior men.

At the same time, about half of employed senior women are self-employed. In 1999, 48% of employed women aged 65 and over worked for themselves, though, this was less than the figure for employed senior men, 67% of whom were self-employed that year.

There are also differences in the occupational distribution of senior women and men with jobs. Senior women, for example, were more than twice as likely as their male counterparts to work in clerical, sales, or service occupations in 1999: 56% versus 23%. In contrast, senior women were considerably less likely than senior men to work in agriculture, manufacturing, construction, or transportation that year; they were also less likely to have managerial jobs.

Many volunteer

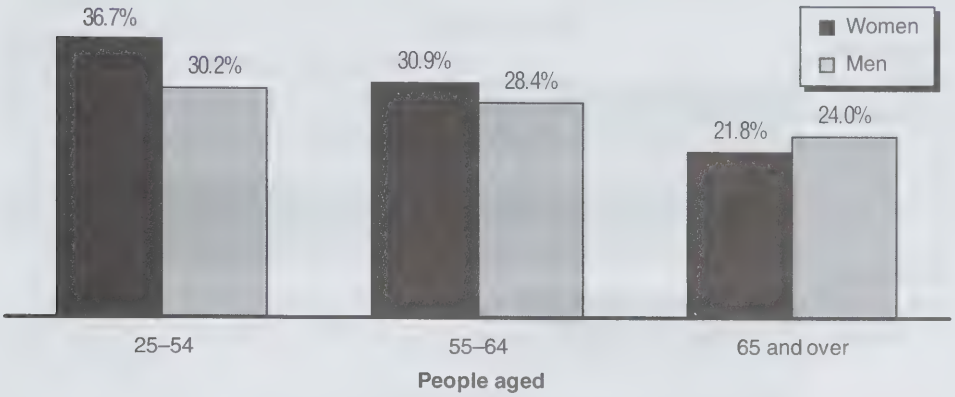
While relatively few senior women participate in the paid workforce, many stay active in their communities through participation in formal volunteer activities. In 1997, more than 400,000 Canadian women aged 65 and over, 22% of the total, participated in these kinds of activities. This figure was just under that for senior men, 24% of whom participated in such activities that year. (Chart 12.5)

Even greater numbers of senior women participate in informal volunteer activities outside their homes. In 1997, 57% of all senior women, again just under the figure for senior men (59%), participated in such endeavours. (Chart 12.6)

There are differences, though, in the types of informal activities engaged in by senior women and men. Senior women are more likely than senior men to help others with housework, do babysitting, visit with other seniors, and provide care and support for the sick, while they are less likely to help with gardening, household maintenance, snow shovelling, shopping, and transportation, as well as writing letters and filling out forms.[8]

 Chart 12.5

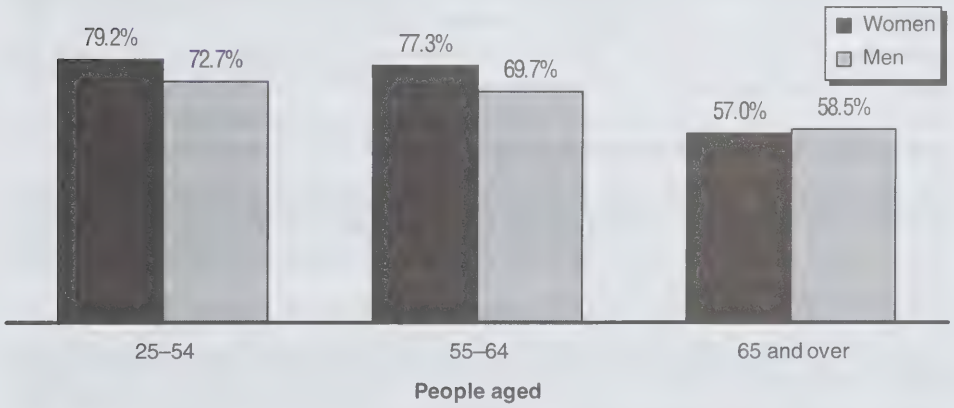
Percentage participating in formal volunteer activities, 1997



Source: *Statistics Canada, National Survey on Giving, Volunteering and Participating.*

 Chart 12.6

Percentage participating in informal volunteering outside household, 1997



Source: *Statistics Canada, National Survey on Giving, Volunteering and Participating.*

Senior women doing housework

Senior women also still devote considerable time to household chores. In 1998, 95% of all women aged 65 and over spent at least some time per week on these activities. That year, senior women averaged 3.8 hours per day doing unpaid household work, almost a full hour more than senior men (3.0). As well, as with those in younger age groups, senior women spend considerably more time than their male counterparts doing housework chores such as cooking, cleaning, and the laundry, while they spend less time doing maintenance and repair activities.[9]

Average income of senior women

Women aged 65 and over have relatively low incomes. In 1997, senior women had an average income from all sources of just over $16,000, more than $10,000 less than that of senior men. The incomes of senior women were also close to $5,000 less than those of women between the ages of 15 and 64. (Chart 12.7)

 Chart 12.7

Average income of individuals, 1981 and 1997



Source: *Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 13-207-XPB.*

The incomes of both senior women and men, however, have risen since the early 1980s. The average annual income of women aged 65 and over in 1997 was 17% higher than in 1981, once the effects of inflation had been accounted for, while the figure for senior men was up 19% in the same period.

Sources of income of senior women

Old Age Security benefits, including Guaranteed Income Supplements, make up a particularly large share of the incomes of senior women. In 1997, 38% of all income of women aged 65 and over came from this program, compared with 21% of that of their male counterparts. (Table 12.15)

In contrast, private employment-related retirement pensions provide a relatively small share of the income of senior women. In 1997, 13% of the income of women aged 65 and over came from these plans, only about half the figure for senior men (27%).

This difference results, in part, from the fact that historically women have been less likely than men to be part of the paid workforce and were therefore less likely to contribute to a private pension plan. As well, because women's earnings were lower than those of their male counterparts, their contributions, and therefore their subsequent benefits, were in many cases also lower.

In contrast to private retirement pensions, Canada/Quebec Pension Plan (C/QPP) benefits account for about the same share of the incomes of senior women and men. In 1997, 22% of all income of women aged 65 and over, versus 21% of that of men in this age range, came from this source.

In terms of actual dollars, however, senior women received, on average, over $2,000 less per year in C/QPP benefits in 1997 than senior men. Again, this difference reflects, in part, the fact that in the past women were less likely than their male counterparts to be employed, and were therefore less likely to contribute to this program. As well, even when these women were employed, their earnings were lower than those of men and,

as such, their C/QPP contributions were also lower. As a result, their subsequent benefits are also lower. In addition, survivor benefits, which are received mostly by women, are only 60% of the retirement pension the deceased spouse would have received.

Low income among senior women

Senior women have the highest incidence of low income of any age group in Canada. In 1997, close to half a million senior women, 24% of the total female population aged 65 and over, lived in a low-income situation. This compared with 12% of senior men, 15% of men aged 18-64, 18% of women aged 18-64, and around 20% of both female and male children. (Table 12.16)

The share of senior women with low incomes, however, has fallen over the course of the past two decades. In 1997, 24% of these women had low incomes, down from 40% in 1980.

The relatively large proportion of senior women with low incomes is accounted for primarily by unattached senior women. In 1997, 49% of senior women who lived alone had low incomes, compared with 33% of unattached senior men, and only 5% of senior women living in a family. (Table 12.17)

The incidence of low income among unattached senior women, however, has dropped sharply since the early 1980s. Between 1980 and 1997, the share of these women with low incomes fell from 72% to 49%.

Leisure time of senior women

Senior women generally have more leisure time than women in younger age ranges. In 1998, women aged 65 and over had an average of 7.7 hours of free time per day, more than two hours more per day than the figure for women between the ages of 15 and 64. Senior women, however, had a half hour less free time per day than their male counterparts.[9]

A considerable share of the free time of women in older age ranges is spent watching television. In 1998, women aged 65 and over averaged 3.4 hours per day watching television, although this was somewhat less than the figure for senior men, who averaged 4 hours a day watching television.

Many senior women, however, are also physically active on a regular basis. In 1997, almost 47% of all women aged 65 and over engaged in regular physical activity, while 12% occasionally took part in such activity. In fact, senior women were only slightly less likely than senior men to be physically active on a regular basis. That year, 53% of senior men participated in these types of activities on a regular basis. (Table 12.18)

Senior women are also very involved in religious activities. In 1996, 42% of women aged 65 and over attended church or other religious functions at least once a week, well above the figure for their male counterparts, just 30% of whom were regular church-goers. (Table 12.19)

Colin Lindsay is the manager of the Target Groups Project.

[1] *For more detail on senior women, see* A Portrait of Seniors in Canada, *Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 89-519-XPE, 1999.*

[2] *Projections are based on assumptions of medium population growth.*

[3] *Includes residents of long-term health care facilities such as hospitals, nursing homes, and residential care facilities for persons with disabilities; but excludes those in long-term health care facilities on military bases, in correctional institutions, or on Indian reserves. These data are from the National Population Health Survey of Statistics Canada.*

[4] *These figures have been age-standardized to the 1991 Canadian population.*

[5] *Note that the data for specific types of cancer are projections from the National Cancer Institute of Canada for 1998, whereas data in the previous section which put overall cancer deaths in the context of other deaths are only available for 1996.*

[6] *Source: Statistics Canada, International Adult Literacy Survey, 1994.*

[7] *The data in this section are from the 1999 Labour Force Survey of Statistics Canada.*

[8] *Source: Statistics Canada, National Survey on Giving, Volunteering and Participating, 1997.*

[9] *Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey, 1998.*

 Table 12.1

Population aged 65 and over, 1921-1999 and projections to 2026

	People aged 65 and over			Women aged 65 and over as a % of total female population	Women as a % of population aged 65 and over
	Women	Men	Total		
	000s				
1921	205.3	215.0	420.2	4.8	48.8
1931	281.5	294.6	576.1	5.6	48.9
1941	376.9	390.9	767.8	6.7	49.1
1951	535.0	551.3	1,086.3	7.7	49.2
1961	717.0	674.1	1,391.1	7.9	51.5
1971	972.0	790.3	1,762.3	8.9	55.2
1981	1,360.1	1,017.2	2,377.3	10.9	57.2
1986	1,589.3	1,147.6	2,737.0	12.1	58.1
1991	1,867.4	1,349.8	3,217.2	13.2	58.0
1996	2,066.7	1,515.3	3,582.0	13.8	57.7
1998	2,142.2	1,587.4	3,729.7	14.0	57.4
1999	2,173.4	1,617.2	3,790.6	14.1	57.3
Projections[1]					
2011	2,739.7	2,098.9	4,838.5	16.2	56.6
2016	3,179.4	2,511.6	5,690.9	18.3	55.9
2021	3,683.1	2,978.3	6,661.3	20.6	55.3
2026	4,250.8	3,509.0	7,759.8	23.2	54.8

[1] *Projections based on assumptions of medium population growth.*

Sources: *Statistics Canada, Catalogue nos. 95-537-XPB and 93-310-XPB, and Demography Division.*

 Table 12.2

Life expectancy of women and men aged 65, 1921 to 1996[1]

	Remaining life expectancy at age 65		
	Women	Men	Total
	Years		
1921[1,2]	13.6	13.0	13.3
1931[2]	13.7	13.0	13.3
1941[2]	14.1	12.8	13.4
1951	15.0	13.3	14.1
1961	16.1	13.6	14.8
1971	17.6	13.8	15.7
1981	18.9	14.6	16.8
1991	20.0	15.8	18.0
1996[3]	20.2	16.3	18.4

[1] *Excludes Quebec.*

[2] *Excludes Newfoundland.*

[3] *Preliminary estimates.*

Sources: *Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 84-537-XPB, and Health Statistics Division.*

Seniors living in institutions, 1996

	Percentage living in			
	Hospitals	Special care homes	Religious institutions	Total in institutions
		%		
Seniors aged				
65-74				
Women	0.3	1.6	0.4	2.3
Men	0.4	1.3	0.2	1.9
Total	0.3	1.4	0.3	2.1
75-84				
Women	0.7	8.8	0.9	10.3
Men	0.9	5.5	0.3	6.7
Total	0.8	7.4	0.6	8.9
85 and over				
Women	2.2	34.4	1.1	37.7
Men	1.9	22.0	0.4	24.3
Total	2.1	30.8	0.9	33.8
Total 65 and over				
Women	0.6	7.8	0.7	9.1
Men	0.6	3.9	0.2	4.8
Total	0.6	6.2	0.4	7.3

Source: *Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.*

 Table 12.4

Family status of seniors, by age, 1996

	Seniors aged							
	65-74		75-84		85 and over		Total 65 and over	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
	%							
Living with family								
With husband or wife	53.8	77.4	30.4	71.9	10.8	55.0	42.7	74.6
With common-law partner	1.1	2.3	0.5	1.2	0.2	0.8	0.8	1.9
Lone parent	5.9	1.6	5.7	1.9	7.3	3.3	5.9	1.8
Child living with parents	0.1	0.1	--	--	--	--	0.1	0.1
Living with extended family members	7.6	2.7	12.4	4.6	21.9	10.3	10.3	2.6
Total living with family	68.4	84.2	49.1	79.6	40.2	69.4	59.8	82.1
Not living with family								
Living alone	29.8	13.8	49.2	18.6	57.8	28.6	38.4	16.0
Living with non-relatives	1.8	2.0	1.7	1.7	2.0	20.0	1.7	1.9
Total not living with family	31.5	15.9	50.9	20.4	59.8	30.6	40.2	17.9
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
Total population (000s)	**1,088.3**	**923.9**	**609.6**	**411.0**	**145.8**	**73.6**	**1,843.7**	**1,408.6**

Source: *Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.*

 Table 12.5

Death rates among people aged 65 and over from selected causes, 1980 and 1996

	Women		Men		Total	
	1980	1996	1980	1996	1980	1996
	Deaths per 100,000 population[1]					
Cancer	794.9	888.1	1,414.8	1,544.2	1,054.4	1,150.2
Heart disease	1,654.9	1,080.1	2,520.1	1,720.4	2,022.9	1,343.9
Strokes	550.6	357.5	612.3	413.5	578.5	382.6
Respiratory diseases	251.2	347.9	624.0	676.6	400.2	470.9
Chronic liver disease or cirrhosis	21.8	19.3	56.5	48.9	37.1	32.3
Total all causes	**4,108.9**	**3,618.8**	**6,369.1**	**5,632.7**	**5,055.9**	**4,429.9**

[1] *Figures are age-standardized to the 1991 population.*
Source: *Statistics Canada, Health Statistics Division.*

Cancer death rates among people aged 60 and over, by type of cancer, 1980 and 1998[1]

	People aged					
	60-69		70-79		80 and over	
	1980	1998	1980	1998	1980	1998
	Deaths per 100,000 population					
Lung						
Women	67.4	144.2	85.8	222.0	76.8	204.8
Men	290.5	280.3	471.2	518.8	460.8	638.4
Total	172.0	210.2	253.2	350.0	213.4	352.4
Breast						
Women	93.2	80.8	121.8	136.2	168.9	231.5
Prostate						
Men	44.1	55.2	170.5	212.8	510.2	655.7
Colorectal						
Women	62.5	41.2	131.7	84.8	262.3	204.8
Men	85.6	75.3	185.0	153.0	323.7	279.5
Total	73.3	57.7	154.8	114.2	284.2	230.3
Other cancers						
Women	225.9	228.3	419.4	434.9	773.9	801.4
Men	340.6	333.7	636.6	618.5	1,036.4	1,118.1
Total	279.7	279.4	513.8	514.1	867.3	909.3
All cancers						
Women	449.0	494.4	758.7	877.8	1,282.0	1,442.6
Men	760.9	744.6	1,463.2	1,503.1	2,331.1	2,691.8
Total	595.2	615.7	1,064.8	1,147.6	1,655.3	1,867.9

[1] *Figures for 1998 are estimated rates.*

Sources: *Statistics Canada, Demography Division; and National Cancer Institute of Canada, Canadian Cancer Statistics, 1998.*

 Table 12.7

General health of seniors living in a private household, 1996-97

	Percentage describing their health as					
	Excellent	Very good	Good	Fair	Poor	Total
			%			
People aged						
65-74						
Women	13.0	28.3	41.4	13.0	4.2	100.0
Men	13.6	30.0	34.3	16.5	5.7	100.0
Total	13.3	29.0	38.3	14.6	4.8	100.0
75-84						
Women	11.9	25.9	34.7	21.4	6.1	100.0
Men	10.1	24.9	39.5	17.4	8.2	100.0
Total	11.1	25.4	36.7	19.7	7.0	100.0
85 and over						
Women	6.4	28.5	34.8	19.0	11.3	100.0
Men	--	29.1	38.2	16.5	9.9	100.0
Total	6.4	28.8	36.1	18.0	10.8	100.0
Total 65 and over						
Women	12.1	27.5	38.8	16.2	5.4	100.0
Men	12.0	28.4	36.1	16.8	6.7	100.0
Total	12.1	27.9	37.6	16.4	6.0	100.0

Source: *Statistics Canada, National Population Health Survey.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 12.8

Percentage of seniors living in a private household reporting selected chronic conditions diagnosed by a health professional, 1996-97

	People aged							
	65-74		75-84		85 and over		Total 65 and over	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
	%							
Food allergies	8.1	3.1	7.4	3.6	4.5	3.8	7.6	3.3
Other allergies	22.6	10.9	19.8	9.1	9.4	6.5	20.6	10.0
Asthma	5.6	6.0	7.2	5.2	3.8	3.2	5.9	5.6
Arthritis/rheumatism	45.6	32.2	51.9	36.0	59.3	43.1	48.7	34.1
Back problems	17.6	15.4	19.7	12.8	15.8	20.3	18.1	14.9
High blood pressure	34.0	28.2	41.9	26.0	33.6	27.4	36.4	27.4
Migraine headaches	6.2	2.4	3.8	--	--	--	5.2	1.9
Chronic bronchitis/ emphysema	4.9	6.3	7.0	8.2	3.0	--	5.4	6.8
Sinusitis	6.3	4.0	5.8	5.1	3.4	--	5.9	4.2
Diabetes	8.8	11.2	9.7	13.6	7.4	--	9.0	12.4
Heart disease	11.3	15.7	18.4	22.4	22.8	20.1	14.4	18.1
Ulcers	3.3	5.6	4.1	6.3	6.6	1.7	3.8	5.5
Cataracts	10.9	6.6	25.6	19.4	32.9	28.6	17.3	12.0
Cancer	4.2	5.3	4.9	6.4	3.9	10.8	4.4	6.0
Effects of a stroke	2.1	3.5	3.8	7.3	8.2	7.7	3.1	5.0
Urinary incontinence	5.1	2.9	8.4	7.2	13.4	5.3	6.8	4.4
Glaucoma	3.7	3.6	7.0	6.2	8.7	3.9	5.2	4.4
Any long-term condition	82.4	76.4	88.9	81.6	88.1	76.8	84.9	78.0

Source: *Statistics Canada, National Population Health Survey.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 12.9

Percentage of people living in a private household with long-term disabilities, 1996-97

	Women	Men	Total
		%	
People aged			
25-54	9.6	8.6	9.1
55-64	19.4	19.7	19.6
65-74	19.7	22.2	20.8
75-84	27.0	28.9	27.8
85 and over	44.4	46.0	45.0
Total 65 and over	24.0	25.8	24.8

Source: *Statistics Canada, National Population Health Survey.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 12.10

Percentage of people living in a private household experiencing chronic pain or discomfort, 1996-97

	Women	Men	Total
		%	
People aged			
25-54	12.4	11.0	11.7
55-64	22.9	18.1	20.6
65-74	23.9	19.9	22.1
75-84	27.1	25.1	26.2
85 and over	37.2	37.4	37.3
Total 65 and over	26.0	22.6	24.6

Source: *Statistics Canada, National Population Health Survey.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 12.11

Percentage of people living in a private household injured[1] in the past 12 months, 1996-97

	Women	Men	Total
		%	
People aged			
25-54	8.3	11.8	10.1
55-64	10.0	6.5	8.3
65-74	5.8	3.7	4.9
75-84	8.0	5.2	6.8
85 and over	9.7	5.9	8.3
Total 65 and over	6.8	4.3	5.7

[1] *Refers to injuries that were serious enough to limit normal activities.*
Source: *Statistics Canada, National Population Health Survey.*

Seniors living in a private household taking medications in the two days before the survey, by the number of medications,[1] 1996-97

	Percentage taking		
	One medication	Two or more	Total taking at least one medication
		%	
People aged			
65-74			
Women	28.8	55.7	84.4
Men	32.6	48.1	80.7
Total	30.4	52.4	82.8
75-84			
Women	24.0	64.8	88.7
Men	29.4	56.4	85.8
Total	26.2	61.4	87.6
85 and over			
Women	19.7	68.1	87.7
Men	21.7	59.3	81.0
Total	20.4	64.6	85.0
Total aged 65 and over			
Women	26.4	59.6	86.1
Men	30.8	51.4	82.3
Total	28.3	56.2	84.4

[1] *Includes both prescription and over-the-counter medications.*

Source: *Statistics Canada, National Population Health Survey.*

 Table 12.13

Percentage of seniors living in a private household taking selected medications in the past month, 1996-97

	Women	Men	Total
		%	
Pain relievers	65.7	56.9	61.9
Tranquilizers	6.1	3.4	4.9
Anti-depressants	4.6	4.0	4.4
Codeine, demerol or morphine	2.6	2.4	2.6
Sleeping pills	8.7	6.8	7.9
Blood pressure medication	35.6	28.6	32.6
Other heart medication	17.1	21.0	18.8
Cough or cold remedies	10.2	8.7	9.5
Penicillin/other antibiotics	6.4	6.8	6.6
Asthma medication	5.4	5.9	5.6
Allergy medicines	3.7	2.4	3.2
Insulin	2.3	3.2	2.7
Pills to control diabetes	6.1	8.9	7.3
Thyroid medication	11.7	2.8	7.9
Diuretics or water pills	12.9	8.6	11.0
Stomach remedies	11.2	10.9	11.0
Laxatives	10.8	7.6	9.4
Hormones for menopause or aging symptoms	9.9	...	...

Source: *Statistics Canada, National Population Health Survey.*

 Table 12.14

Educational attainment of seniors, 1996

	Less than Grade 9	Some secondary	High school graduate[1]	Non-university post-secondary	University without degree	University graduate[2]	Total
				%			
Seniors aged							
65-74							
Women	34.2	26.9	15.0	14.9	2.5	6.5	100.0
Men	34.5	22.0	15.0	13.8	3.2	11.4	100.0
Total	34.4	24.6	15.0	14.4	2.8	8.8	100.0
75-84							
Women	39.0	27.1	13.9	12.3	2.2	5.6	100.0
Men	39.8	22.8	14.1	11.1	2.7	9.6	100.0
Total	39.3	25.4	14.0	11.8	2.4	7.2	100.0
85 and over							
Women	47.0	22.7	10.9	12.6	1.9	4.9	100.0
Men	49.4	19.4	11.4	9.2	2.3	8.3	100.0
Total	47.8	21.7	11.0	11.4	2.0	6.1	100.0
Total 65 and over							
Women	36.8	26.6	14.3	13.9	2.4	6.1	100.0
Men	36.9	22.1	14.6	12.8	3.0	10.7	100.0
Total	36.8	24.7	14.4	13.4	2.6	8.1	100.0

[1] *Includes those with a trades certificate or diploma.*
[2] *Includes those with a university certificate or diploma below the bachelor level.*
Source: *Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.*

Sources of income of seniors, 1997

	Women	Men	Total
		%	
Wages and salaries	2.8	6.5	4.8
Net income from self-employment	1.0	4.1	2.7
Total employment income	3.8	10.6	7.6
Investment income			
Interest/bonds	9.0	6.1	7.4
Dividends	1.9	2.6	2.3
Other	1.8	2.0	1.9
Total investment income	12.7	10.7	11.6
RRSPs	4.5	4.7	4.6
Income from government transfers			
Old Age Security[1]	38.1	21.2	28.7
Canada/Quebec Pension Plan	21.8	21.1	21.4
Unemployment insurance	0.1	0.2	0.1
Social assistance	1.0	0.5	0.7
Other government transfers	3.1	3.0	3.1
Total government transfers	64.2	46.0	54.1
Retirement pensions	13.2	26.5	20.6
Other money income	1.7	1.5	1.6
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
Total income ($)	**16,070**	**26,150**	**20,451**

[1] *Includes Guaranteed Income Supplements.*

Source: *Statistics Canada, Income Statistics Division.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 12.16

Percentage of the population with low income, 1980-1997[1]

	1980	1982	1984	1986	1988	1990	1992	1994	1996	1997
						%				
People aged										
Under 18										
Females	16.1	19.6	21.0	17.5	16.5	18.2	19.3	20.1	21.4	19.0
Males	15.5	18.6	21.0	17.7	15.7	17.3	19.1	18.9	20.9	20.6
Total	15.8	19.1	21.0	17.6	16.1	17.8	19.2	19.5	21.1	19.8
18-64										
Women	15.5	16.1	18.1	16.1	15.2	15.2	17.0	17.5	17.8	17.8
Men	11.6	13.5	14.6	13.0	11.6	11.8	14.1	14.2	14.6	15.1
Total	13.6	14.8	16.4	14.6	13.4	13.5	15.5	15.9	16.2	16.4
65 and over										
Women	39.8	36.0	35.1	32.0	32.7	27.1	26.8	25.8	27.0	24.0
Men	26.6	20.0	22.0	19.3	16.6	13.7	12.7	10.7	12.8	11.7
Total	34.0	29.1	29.5	26.6	25.8	21.3	20.8	19.3	20.8	18.7

[1] *Based on Statistics Canada's Low Income Cut-offs, 1992 base.*
Source: *Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 13-207-XPB.*

WOMEN IN CANADA Table 12.17

Percentage of seniors with low income, by family status, 1980-1997[1]

	In families			Unattached individuals		
	Women	Men	Total	Women	Men	Total
			%			
1980	17.5	18.0	17.8	71.6	60.7	68.6
1981	16.8	18.6	17.8	70.0	57.3	66.6
1982	13.3	13.4	13.3	70.4	52.3	65.9
1983	12.5	14.7	13.7	71.3	57.0	67.8
1984	14.5	15.6	15.0	65.7	54.6	63.1
1985	13.1	14.2	13.6	64.1	50.2	60.9
1986	11.8	13.4	12.6	61.2	48.4	58.1
1987	10.7	12.4	11.5	59.3	41.9	55.1
1988	10.9	11.9	11.4	61.4	38.9	56.1
1989	8.4	9.4	8.9	56.6	35.5	51.5
1990	6.6	7.4	7.0	53.8	41.0	50.7
1991	8.2	7.8	8.0	54.2	40.7	50.9
1992	8.2	7.9	8.1	54.0	34.9	49.2
1993	8.4	8.9	8.7	56.4	39.0	51.9
1994	6.3	5.9	6.1	52.9	31.8	47.6
1995	6.7	7.0	6.9	50.6	28.7	45.1
1996	7.8	7.5	7.6	53.4	33.3	47.9
1997	5.4	6.4	5.9	49.1	33.3	45.0

[1] *Based on Statistics Canada's Low Income Cut-offs, 1992 base.*
Source: *Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 13-207-XPB.*

Percentage of people living in a private household participating in physical activities, by frequency, 1996-97

	Frequency of physical activity				
	Regular	Occasional	Rarely	Not stated	Total
			%		
People aged					
15-24					
Women	64.6	19.0	14.9	1.5	100.0
Men	67.8	16.0	12.7	3.5	100.0
Total	66.2	17.4	13.8	2.5	100.0
25-44					
Women	60.0	19.2	19.4	1.4	100.0
Men	54.1	23.1	20.6	2.2	100.0
Total	57.1	21.2	20.0	1.7	100.0
45-54					
Women	58.3	18.2	22.1	1.4	100.0
Men	50.8	20.8	24.3	4.1	100.0
Total	54.5	19.6	23.3	2.7	100.0
55-64					
Women	57.8	17.4	23.0	1.8	100.0
Men	55.9	17.1	23.6	3.3	100.0
Total	56.9	17.3	23.3	2.5	100.0
65 and over					
Women	47.2	12.2	35.8	4.8	100.0
Men	52.7	12.0	26.7	8.5	100.0
Total	49.6	12.1	31.9	6.4	100.0

Source: *Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 82-221-XPE.*

 Table 12.19

Percentage of people attending religious activities, by frequency, 1996

	Once a week or more	Once a month	A few times/ once a year	Not at all	Other[1]	Total
			%			
People aged						
15-24						
Women	12.7	8.1	30.1	26.7	22.4	100.0
Men	12.1	11.4	28.3	24.2	24.1	100.0
Total	12.4	9.8	29.2	25.4	23.3	100.0
25-44						
Women	17.9	9.6	29.3	27.9	15.3	100.0
Men	13.8	9.5	28.2	29.8	18.7	100.0
Total	15.8	9.6	28.7	28.8	17.0	100.0
45-54						
Women	25.6	10.4	27.5	25.0	11.4	100.0
Men	16.8	8.1	26.7	33.2	15.1	100.0
Total	21.2	9.3	27.1	29.2	13.3	100.0
55-64						
Women	40.9	10.9	22.3	20.1	5.8	100.0
Men	27.4	12.6	24.0	26.2	9.9	100.0
Total	35.7	12.1	20.7	23.7	7.9	100.0
65 and over						
Women	41.5	11.4	18.6	23.6	4.9	100.0
Men	30.2	11.4	20.6	27.4	10.3	100.0
Total	36.6	11.4	19.4	25.3	7.2	100.0

[1] *Includes those with no religious affiliation.*

Source: *Statistics Canada, General Social Survey.*

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